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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 24, 1887.

The Week.

THE President's selections for the Inter-State Commerce Commission have been marked by extraordinary diligence. The law excludes from the Commission all persons "in the employ of or holding any official relation to any common carrier subject to the provision of this act, or owning stock or bonds thereof, or who are in any way pecuniarily interested therein." This provision not only excludes every "railroad man," properly so called, in the country, but it necessarily excludes all men who have succeeded in life sufficiently to hold railroad investments, as they would, therefore, have to qualify for the office by more or less derangement of their private affairs, even if they were willing to undertake duties so onerous for a salary of \$7,500. The Commission is, in fact, wholly composed of lawyers, but, with the possible exception of Mr. Morrison and Judge Schoonmaker, they are very familiar with railroad management as well as railroad law. Judge Cooley, who goes in for the long term of six years, has been engaged in a great deal of railroad litigation, and is at the present moment receiver of the Wabash system of railroads. Mr. Walker of Vermont has had a very large railroad practice, and enjoys the distinction of having done his best to free Vermont from the domination of a very corrupt railroad ring. Mr. Bragg has been President of the Alabama State Railroad Commission. It is characteristic of President Cleveland's painstaking ways, in the discharge of duties of this sort, that he did not appoint him until he had previously examined the records of this commission so as to satisfy himself as to the justice or injustice of charges which had been made against its manner of doing duty. Of Judge Schoonmaker, the member from this State, it may be said that he has every qualification except actual experience of railroad management. As to character and ability, no member of the New York bar stands higher, and he has shown his warm adhesion to all progressive tendencies in public administration by faithful and self-sacrificing service during the past four years as a member of the State Civil Service Commission. Mr. Morrison is best known through his career in Congress and his ineffectual but persistent efforts to effect a revision of the tariff.

What is most remarkable about the Commission is, however, not so much the quality of the members, high as this is, as the evident indifference to political considerations with which they have been chosen. The President was bound by the law to divide them between the two political parties. The act provides that not more than three shall belong to the same political party. But it is hardly necessary to say that had the President consulted party managers in making the

appointments, or sought to make what they would consider party "capital" out of the composition of the Board, not one of the gentlemen he has chosen would have found a place on it. We doubt whether any one who knows anything of politics will question this statement, and, if accurate, President Cleveland has done a new thing in American administration, and one of which the effects will be permanent as well as important. We believe every member of the Commission has been selected without the aid of the "pulls" which have long formed so important a feature in our political machinery.

The St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* publishes a very notable editorial article regarding the next Presidential campaign, apropos of the recent interview with Senator Edmunds. The *Globe-Democrat* agrees with Mr. Edmunds in the opinion that the Democrats will renominate Mr. Cleveland. It holds that the few Democratic newspapers, like the New York *World* and Louisville *Courier-Journal*, which favor some other candidate, "voice the views of a mere handful of malcontents, whose wishes would not have the slightest influence in directing the party choice, and whose opposition would not be a feather-weight in a canvass against the party candidate." It warns the foolish Republicans "who may find a mild variety of amusement in conjuring up in their minds such opposition to the President in his own party as could defeat him for renomination," that they are the victims of a delusion, and says that "wise Republicans will realize now that Cleveland will be the standard-bearer of the Democratic party a year hence, and be governed accordingly." The question for Republicans, therefore, is whether they can defeat Cleveland in 1888, and this is the *Globe-Democrat's* answer: "We believe they can. But they certainly cannot do so if they again confront him with the candidate which they put in the field in 1884." Such a confession would be significant in any Republican paper, but it derives added force in this case from the two facts that Mr. Blaine's friends pronounce him peculiarly strong in the West, and that the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* is perhaps the best representative of Western Republicanism.

A Republican Club has recently been started in the westernmost county of Massachusetts, and the incident derives its importance from the fact that it is hoped to make this club a model for many others throughout the State, and that it is the beginning of a movement which appears to engage the chief energies of the party managers. The basis of this movement is the theory that the only thing needed to restore the Republican party in Massachusetts to its ancient preëminence is "organization." The constitution of the Berkshire Club pledges loyalty in national, State, and county contests to the principles of the National Republican party, "as declared by the national platforms, and established by the illustrious his-

tory of that party from 1860 to 1886," while it declares for "independence of all parties, rings, and political machines in municipal, town, and school elections." The most obvious comment upon this is the absurdity of making so broad a distinction between county and municipal, town, or school elections. The management of county affairs has no more to do with "the principles of the National Republican party" or of the National Democratic party than the management of town or city affairs, and "county rings" have often set up political machines of the worst type. It is therefore ridiculous to give members of the Club "the unquestioned right to vote in accordance with their individual preferences" in municipal, town, and school elections, but to insist upon their support of regular Republican nominations in national, State, and county contests, unless a majority of all the members fail to endorse these nominations. To say that a Republican shall have "the unquestioned right" to vote for a Democrat as Selectman or School Committeeman of his town if he thinks the Democrat the best candidate, but that he must forfeit his membership of the Club for a year if he supports a Democrat whom he thinks the best candidate for County Commissioner, is so ridiculous that it seems odd that anybody should have the assurance to formulate such a rule.

The first colored State fair in Florida, which was held at Jacksonville last week, furnished striking evidence both of the rapid progress which the race is making and of the growth in harmonious relations between the whites and blacks. The range of exhibits was very extensive, and the patronage included hundreds of white spectators every day. Better than the signs of progress in agriculture and the mechanical arts was the evidence furnished of progress in education and the finer arts. Mr. Albert J. Russell, Superintendent of Public Instruction in Florida for some years past, delivered the opening address, and congratulated his hearers upon the fact that the colored people had just reported the raising of funds which assured the establishment of an industrial school for the training of their boys and girls in a knowledge of tools and the trades. It will thus be seen that the negroes are not only improving to the full the educational advantages offered by the public schools, but are becoming so prosperous that they can establish an industrial school of their own. This is only one of many signs of progress in Florida, which is fast developing a common-school system worthy to rank with that of any Northern State. A letter from Mr. Russell announces that his forthcoming report for last year will show an increase in the number of schools from 1,504 in 1884 to 1,724 in 1885, and 1,832 in 1886, with a corresponding increase in the enrolment and average attendance. "Best of all," he concludes, with that self-reliant spirit which is now so rapidly growing in the South, "the people of Florida are doing it all themselves, without any aid from any outside source."

The discovery that Mr. Bayles, the new President of the Board of Health, at one time belonged to the Knights of Labor, is not a very important one. We have heard of many sensible and intelligent men and women, not manual laborers properly so called, either joining the order or watching it with sympathetic eyes a year or two ago. They thought it was, as its Constitution and by-laws seemed to indicate, a social-science association, or an association for mutual improvement, and for the promotion of reformatory legislation. Nobody then dreamed that it was to be the promoter of such insane and childish performances as the sympathetic strikes; or that its chiefs were to declare strikes to be "war," and to justify the use of the bludgeon, the pistol, and the torch, not only against employers, but against poor men who refused to join the order and sought to manage their own lives in their own way; or were to try, almost without disguise, to substitute the despotic rule of the Order for the National Government, and to blackguard and threaten the officers of the law for seeking to restrain or punish their disorders. Neither Mr. Bayles nor any other good citizen ever knowingly joined an organization of this sort, or remained in it after it had shown itself simply an elongation and amplification of the Molly Maguires of Pennsylvania. Nothing more discreditable, too, has ever issued from the pen of a Christian minister than Cardinal Gibbons's sophistical and disingenuous description of the Order addressed to the Holy See. There is hardly a paragraph in his account of the Knights which does not contain either a suppression of the truth or a suggestion of falsehood.

Mr. Bayles recently published a pamphlet entitled 'The Shop Council,' which is, on the whole, we think, so far as our observation goes, the most rational, and practical, and persuasive of all the suggestions for averting strikes which the recent labor troubles have called forth. It shows clearly enough that he never could have been a Knight of Labor in good standing with Powderly or Quinn. He proposes the establishment in each shop or factory of a council, composed both of the employers and employed, to form a permanent tribunal for the discussion, though not for the absolute settlement, of all grievances and complaints, in the belief, which is undoubtedly well founded, that nine out of ten labor disputes are the result of misunderstanding or of imperfect knowledge of the facts on one side or other. Mere trifles become the cause of great disturbance, loss, and suffering, by the habit on the part of workmen of running with them to the paid officers of the trades-unions, who not only have no direct interest in settling the quarrel amicably, but actually have a direct interest in magnifying it, both for the purpose of showing their power and of justifying their salaries.

The extraordinary act which the President inadvertently approved, providing for the exclusion from the United States of aliens under contract to perform labor, was the product of Mr. O'Neill's Labor Committee, and is now said to be embarrassing the Treasury Department a good deal. It is an addendum to the act of Feb-

ruary 26, 1885, which forbade the importation of aliens under labor contracts, except personal and domestic servants, professional actors, artists, lecturers, and singers, or workmen to be employed in any new industry not already established in the United States. That act imposed heavy penalties for its violation on the employer making such a contract, or the master of the vessel "knowingly" bringing the aliens over; but the prosecution was left to the United States District Attorney. The last act goes further, and charges the Treasury with the duty of seeing to the execution of the law, by sending agents on board incoming passenger vessels to overhaul the passengers, and see whether any of them come under its provisions, and, when any such are found, to send them back at the expense of the owners of the vessel. If the owners refuse to pay, the ship is to be excluded from the ports of the United States, and the expenses are to constitute a lien on the ship. Of course, if such agents or commissioners are to accomplish anything, they must be armed with inquisitorial powers of an extraordinary nature, and capable of monstrous abuse. They would have it in their power arbitrarily and on their own dictum to exclude anybody they pleased from the country, and to inflict ruinous fines on any ship-owner they might select for persecution. The Treasury, it is said, hardly knows how to make regulations for the execution of such a law.

It is not to be denied that the practice, in which some corporations have been indulging during the past few years, of importing large bodies of the lowest class of European laborers, Hungarians, Poles, and Italians, only partially civilized, and ignorant not only of the laws but of the language of the country, and with very low standards of living, is one which needed some restraint. The serious troubles, both industrial and political, which these importations have been causing during the past year, have made a deep impression on the public mind. A measure, therefore, directed against importations *en masse* of unskilled and ignorant labor, and fortified with some tests of character or education, would, we think, meet with general approval. But such a measure would of course have to be carefully drawn, and to contain ample provision against abuse and against arbitrary interference with legitimate intercourse or trade. The present bills contain nothing of the kind. They simply strike blindly at any man, no matter his quality, who makes a contract in Europe to come here to "perform labor," and contains not one word looking to the exclusion of the "foreign devils," to use the Chinese phrase, who come here not to labor, but to "raise hell," by throwing bombs, or by getting up murder associations, or opening rumholes, or publishing anarchical newspapers. As the law now stands, Most, or Braunschweiger, or Owney Geoghegan, or Tom Gould could enter the United States without any difficulty whatever, while the most respectable and industrious German cabinet-maker, or Irish mason, or bricklayer, or farmer, who had secured his future or that of his family by an agreement with an employer before starting, would run the risk of being sent back in the ship by which he had arrived.

Emigration from the United Kingdom is still on the increase, 236,104 persons having sailed from the various ports in 1886 against only 210,848 in 1885. About 60 per cent. of the whole number were Englishmen, and about 10 per cent. more were Scotch, so that the 61,411 Irish composed only about 30 per cent. of the whole number, whereas thirty or forty years ago Ireland contributed from 60 to 70 per cent. of all. The change in proportion is not due so much to the fact that Irishmen emigrate less than they did, as to the fact that Englishmen emigrate much more. The United States continue to attract about two-thirds of the whole number, despite all the efforts of the Canadian authorities; and Australia and New Zealand come next, almost as large a number seeking homes in the latter colonies in 1886 as in the years of the gold discoveries. Statistics covering a long period show that the emigration from each part of the United Kingdom has certain persistent features. Thus the Irish woman is as ready to quit her country as her father or brother, while there are two men for one woman among English and Scotch emigrants. On the other hand, the English or Scotch emigrant more often goes to his new home with his children than the Irishman, only about 11 per cent. of all Irish emigrants being children, against about 18 per cent. among the English, and more than 20 per cent. among the Scotch. The back-flowing stream of immigration into Great Britain is much larger than is generally supposed, from 80,000 to 90,000 persons annually going from the United States to England, many of whom, doubtless, are people who found that they were unfitted for life in a new country.

The last report of the Registrar-General in England furnishes fresh evidence of the steady progress which is making in the prolongation of human life, especially through the influence of the sanitary measures adopted during the last thirty years. The death-rate for 1886 was 19.3 per thousand of the population, which was lower than that recorded in any previous year since the registration system was started in 1837, with the two exceptions of 19 in 1885 and 18.9 in 1881. The mean annual death-rate for the six years since 1880 did not exceed 19.3, which was 2.1 below the mean rate between 1870 and 1880. This means that 339,000 persons in England and Wales were alive at the end of those six years who would have been dead if the rate of mortality which prevailed between 1870 and 1880 had been maintained. The reduction is largely accounted for by the falling-off in the deaths from the principal zymotic or "filth diseases," which have sunk from an annual rate of 4.15 per thousand between 1860 and 1870, to 3.40 between 1870 and 1880, and only 2.43 since 1880. The proportion of infant mortality has also been perceptibly diminished, falling from an average of 149 per 1,000 births during the ten years preceding 1880 to 141 in the six years since then. The birth-rate itself last year was only 32.4, which is lower than in any previous year since 1848, and the natural increase of population by the excess of births over deaths accordingly shows a decline from 375,922 in 1884 and 371,520 in 1885 to 366,138 in 1886.

The latest attempt to solve the labor problem is that of Mr. W. H. Mallock, who has begun some articles on it in the *Fortnightly Review*. The first one states the problem, which is, how to satisfy people who have embraced the doctrine of Karl Marx, viz., that all value is given by labor, and that, therefore, laborers are entitled to everything into the production of which labor enters, including the instruments of labor, land, machinery, and mines. In other words, they demand that everything called property should be taken possession of by the Government, and managed for the common benefit. Mr. Mallock is to give the answer to this question in the next number of the magazine, and it will probably be interesting as a bit of speculation in sociology by a lively writer, but we have no expectation that he will throw new light on the subject. There is no way of refuting a man who maintains that every commodity derives all its value from labor, although he sees every day much labor expended on things which have no value. It is desire for things which gives them value. Everybody has more or less experience of this, and a man on whom this experience makes no impression is not likely to be influenced by argument. The part which successful capitalists and investors play in modern society is that of distinguishing the things to which labor will give value from the things to which it will not give value. The men who are skilful in this make fortunes. The men who are not, go into bankruptcy, or remain laborers. If the former were more numerous, there would be fewer unsuccessful enterprises, and less wasted labor, and the whole human race would be far better off. As a matter of fact they are lamentably scarce. The history of industry is in large part the history of mistakes in the selection of things on which to expend labor.

To the question how we are going to satisfy the Socialists, either of the Karl Marx or any other school, the answer must always be that we cannot satisfy them. There is not much use in arguing with them, because they are generally poor and unsuccessful men, who have a powerful personal bias in favor of the theory that they have been in some manner cheated or robbed by the successful. The only sure way to enlighten them would be to try the experiment of turning some nation into a joint-stock company, and handing over all the property of individuals to be managed by boards of politicians for the common benefit. But no nation will ever be willing to try an experiment so costly in order to convince anybody that his theories are false. It would involve ruin if it failed, and, in fact, the mere attempt to try it would be productive of as much convulsion as a civil war. What, then, is the modern world going to do about Socialism? Simply bear with it as patiently as it can; bear with it as we bear with unpreventable disease in men, animals, and plants. We must argue with Socialists where argument seems likely to be effective, and resist them where argument is of no use, and go on as well as we can making the world a more and more comfortable place for good men to live in, and a more and more uncomfortable place for cranks and criminals to cut capers in,

To the patient, industrious, law-abiding, just, and self-reliant, society owes every help which science or art or statesmanship can suggest. To the unreasonable and obstreperous it owes nothing but such restraint as may be necessary to keep them from harming themselves or their neighbors.

The "Incorporated Society of Authors" has begun a series of conferences in London, at which are to be debated practical questions affecting the interests of writers, the subject of the recent first conference being the rather wide topic of "The Maintenance of Literary Property," on which a paper was read by Mr. Walter Besant. On this occasion the chair was taken by Lord Lytton, who said that the results which might be produced by such a society could scarcely be overestimated. He did not think that the profession of literature at the present day could be regarded on the whole as unprosperous or unremunerative, yet the individual provider of literature found himself in a very disadvantageous position as regards the distributor, compared to any other producer and distributor. The farmer, the manufacturer, knew the commercial value of the article he produced, and knew the conditions of the market in which it was sold. The author had none of those advantages. Mr. Besant's main contention was that the relations between author and publisher are at the present moment most unsatisfactory. They have always been strained; the increase and development of the literary trade only make this strain felt more keenly; there is no workman so discontented with his pay as the author; there is no one so jealous and suspicious of his treatment; there is no kind of work which has caused so much disappointment as literary work. The Society of Authors was founded partly in the hope of finding some remedy for this state of things. The question put before them for the first time now was, "What proportion of the results from the sale of a book should be retained by the publisher in equity in payment of his services for producing a book in the publishing of which there is no risk?" There were now a great number of writers about whose books there was no risk. It must be remembered that as administrators, or distributors and collectors, as agents, in short, the publishers have a perfect right to payment for their services. Many disagreements between author and publisher would never occur if this very simple rule were borne in mind. Men do not work for each other without payment. Much less do they pay heavy rents, keep travellers, clerks, and accountants simply in order to do good to each other. Mr. Besant discussed the various systems employed in publishing, such as that of half-profits, royalties, and commission. His cure for the faults of the half-profits system was "no more secret profits, and the auditing of all accounts." The improvement of the royalty plan which he desired was apparently to treble the amount of royalty, which has the merit of being simple.

Of course, much was said about copyright. Lord Lytton said that the Society hoped to

work with the publishing and book-selling trade in securing an international copyright all the world over. At present their chief difficulty lay with the United States, where piracy was so profitable. With the increase, however, of a literature of their own, the American publishers would find the piracy not so profitable, and there was every reason to hope that authors would soon secure their rights in their own property on both sides of the Atlantic. Mr. Bryce, M. P., said that they had already obtained protection throughout all English-speaking nations, except the United States of America; and Mr. Besant concluded his paper with a description of a dream in which he imagined the more than 400,000,000 English-speaking people having one common copyright law. This, he said, was the aim of the English Society of Authors. At the next two conferences Mr. Edmund Gosse will speak on "The Profession of Author," and Mr. John Hollingshead on "Dramatic Rights and Property." All these questions are of living interest in this country, and it might be useful to have an American organization to act in concert with the London Society for mutual benefit in all matters of common interest. Perhaps for dealing with the question of copyright nothing further is required than what we have already; but as to other matters something may be done, if our authors are not in a happier state than their English brethren. The Authors' Club might hesitate, perhaps wisely, to concern itself as a club with matters of business, but it could fitly afford a *nidus* for a society such as we suggest.

One of the oddest scandals which have occurred in politics for a long time, is the charge brought against the Corporation of the City of London of having spent a large sum from the municipal funds, something like \$250,000, in getting up bogus meetings to protest against the bill introduced by Sir William Harcourt to reform the municipal government. At these meetings everybody, including the audiences, was hired. Indeed, the "hire of the audience" was set down as an item in the accounts. Of course these hired audiences were small. One, composed of "indignant London Irishmen," consisted of only five persons, and was held in a tavern. In some cases the hired men were sent to capture Liberal meetings, and if necessary "storm" their platforms. Among them on all occasions a small party of men is set down as "chuckers-out," who performed the functions assigned in this country to "bouncers," and were doubtless men of similar build and character. If it be asked how these bogus meetings were made to serve any purpose in the agitation, the answer is, we regret to say, that reporters who had access to the leading metropolitan journals were found ready to desecrate their calling by getting accounts of them published as "imposing demonstrations," or "crowded and enthusiastic meetings," at which the applause was described as frantic. The charges have been brought up in the House of Commons by Mr. Labouchere, and he offers to prove them to the letter, having the accounts and other documents in his possession.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 16, to TUESDAY, March 22, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has appointed on the Commission created by the Inter-State Commerce Law: Thomas M. Cooley of Michigan, for the term of six years; William R. Morrison of Illinois, for the term of five years; Augustus Schoonmaker of New York, for the term of four years; Aldace F. Walker of Vermont, for the term of three years; Walter L. Bragg of Alabama, for the term of two years.

The President spent his fiftieth birthday, March 10, quietly at the White House. Speaker Carlisle and most of the Senators and members of Congress in Washington called and offered their congratulations.

Mr. C. H. J. Taylor, a colored man, has been appointed by the President to be Minister to Liberia, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of the late Mr. Hopkins.

A general order has been issued by the War Department to discontinue the firing of a morning and evening gun at military posts, except at the United States Military Academy, Fort Monroe, Virginia, and Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, because the supply of powder remaining at the close of the war of the Rebellion, which has been used for this purpose, has been exhausted.

Application has been made to the Treasury Department for the free entry at San Francisco of a joss for a joss house in that city. It is 150 feet long and is made of wood, paper, tinsel, and metal. The Department has decided that it is not entitled to free entry, as "philosophical and scientific apparatus, statuary, paintings, drawings," etc., or as "regalia and gems, statues, and specimens of sculpture, where specially imported in good faith for the use of any society incorporated or established for religious purposes."

The captain of a Gloucester, Mass., schooner, which was seized last summer by the Collector at Port Hawkesbury, C. B., for alleged violation of the customs laws, and held until a fine of \$400 was paid, has received word from the Dominion Government that the fine will be remitted.

The Trade Convention between Cuba and Porto Rico on the one hand, and the United States on the other, which was to have terminated in April, has been prolonged to November, in order to give time for the negotiation of a treaty.

The General Assembly of Virginia met on March 16 in extra session. Its especial duty is to settle the vexed question of the State's debt. Gov. Lee recommended the appointment of a commission on the part of the State to meet a similar commission on the part of the bondholders, to make a true presentation of the revenues and resources of the State, and to determine how much the State can pay.

The Democratic Congressional Convention to nominate a successor to Congressman Reagan of Texas, who has been elected Senator, on the 272d ballot chose William H. Martin.

The Republican State Convention of Rhode Island on the 18th nominated all the incumbents of the State offices for the party candidates, namely: For Governor, George Peabody Wetmore; Lieutenant-Governor, Lucius C. Darling; Secretary of State, Joshua M. Adelman; Attorney-General, Edwin Metcalf; General Treasurer, Samuel Clark; State Auditor, Samuel H. Cross.

The bill fixing the annual salary of the Governor of Ohio at \$8,000 instead of \$4,000, as now, has become a law, to take effect after the next election.

A high-license bill in the New Jersey Legislature was so amended as to reduce the fees to

a low-license system. The purpose of the measure has thus been defeated. The movement for submitting a prohibitory amendment in Nebraska has been defeated in the lower branch of the Legislature, receiving only a small majority where two-thirds were necessary.

The Legislature of Maine has abolished capital punishment after an experiment with it of several years. The condemned are to be kept in close and solitary confinement, and no pardoning power is left to the Governor and Council, unless the convict is afterwards proved innocent.

The Richmond Hotel at Buffalo was burned on March 18. The fire was discovered at 3:30 o'clock in the morning, and the house was filled with people. Ten persons were killed—burned to death, or so severely injured that they died within a few days; four others are missing, who are supposed to have perished, and as many as twenty-five received more or less severe injuries. Two days before this fire the Miller & Greiner block of buildings was burned, and there have within a week been three smaller fires in Buffalo. The total losses are little less than \$1,000,000. In East Buffalo, on the 20th, a small hotel was burned, from which several persons escaped just in time to save themselves. A fire at the Chautauqua (N. Y.) Assembly grounds, on March 21, destroyed more than fifty buildings, including several boarding-houses and several of the handsomest cottages. The total loss exceeds \$100,000. The fire was caused by a defective flue. On the same night the Grand Central Theatre, at Troy, N. Y., and the Warsaw (N. Y.) Salt Company's Works were burned.

The succession of fatal fires in hotels has caused a bill to be prepared, which will be introduced in the New York Legislature, to require every hotel to have a rope in every room above the ground floor, so fastened as to hold a weight of 400 pounds, and coiled in plain sight by a window, so that any person will be sure to see it.

The important addition is to be made this year to the summer instruction offered by Harvard College of a course in physical training for teachers of both sexes. It will consist of lectures, examinations, and exercises, and the various opportunities offered by the University will be opened to the students under the direction of Dr. Sargent.

Mr. Robert Garrett of Baltimore, an alumnus of Princeton College, has given \$8,000 towards the new art school of Princeton. This will permit the work on the building to begin. Mr. Robert Garrett's brother, Mr. T. Harrison Garrett, gave \$7,000 towards the same purpose last spring.

Subscriptions have been opened in Brooklyn towards the erection of a monument to Henry Ward Beecher, and for the building of a free public library to his memory.

A mass meeting was held at the Cooper Union March 21, called by the Municipal Council of the Irish National League, to protest against proposed coercion for Ireland by the English Government.

Walter E. Lawton, a dealer in fertilizers, has disappeared from New York, and left obligations to the amount of nearly \$1,000,000.

The snow blockade on the Canadian Pacific Railroad has been raised, and the line is open to the Pacific Coast.

A flood in the upper Missouri River on March 18 washed away a part of the high trestle of the Northern Pacific Railroad at Mandan, Dak. The bridge and the telegraph poles were swept away, and for a number of days the town was cut off from communication in any way with Bismarck, which is on the east side of the river. At one point, where the river is usually three quarters of a mile wide, it became more than six miles wide. The ice from a broken gorge struck the railroad

warehouse at Bismarck, which is one of the largest in the world, and drove it against the bluffs. A meadow of 6,000 acres was inundated, and ice was driven over it by the current at the speed of ten miles an hour. The water rose a foot higher than the highest previous water-mark. Traffic has been delayed on the Northern Pacific since March 17. It is expected that passengers and mail will be transferred by boats on March 24. Conflicting reports have been made of the loss of life by the washing away of houses near the river bank.

An earthquake shock was felt at Summerville, S. C., on March 18, which was more severe than any since last summer.

FOREIGN.

The celebration of Emperor William's nineteenth birthday (March 22) was extended over two days. On the afternoon of the 21st he gave a special audience to foreign envoys. Every European court had sent a royal representative. Afterwards there was a state dinner to the royal guests. In the evening more than 3,000 students, bearing flags, banners, and torches, formed in procession and marched to the palace. The Emperor and Empress appeared at a window and bowed. The students called for cheers for the Emperor, "for the victorious commander in glorious battles, for the beloved father of his country, for the author of the union of the German races, for the defender of the frontiers of the empire, for the guardian of the peace of the world." The procession cheered loudly at Prince Bismarck's palace, and paid a similar compliment to Gen. von Moltke. While the procession was passing the palace the multitude bared their heads, and the cheers became wilder and wilder until the Emperor, overcome with emotion, was compelled to withdraw. The procession passed through the town to an open space, where the torches were thrown into heaps, and the students sang patriotic songs. In the rear of the procession was a long row of carriages containing deputations from German and foreign universities. Most of the schools celebrated the event a day in advance. Children in most of them received portraits and short biographies of the Emperor in memory of the occasion. On the morning of the 22d the Emperor received the congratulations of his household, and at eleven o'clock appeared at the window dressed in parade uniform, standing firm and erect, and repeatedly waved vigorous salutes to the crowd. He came to the window often during the day. The greatest outburst of enthusiasm occurred when, after the arrival of Prince Bismarck and Gen. von Moltke, all three appeared, the Emperor in the centre, with Bismarck on his right and Von Moltke on his left. The royal visitors offered their congratulations during the day, and in the afternoon the Emperor and Empress dined at the palace of the Crown Prince. In the evening they attended a soirée in the castle. During the interval between the parts of the entertainment the Emperor walked about and exchanged greetings with his guests, shaking hands with the ambassadors and their wives, saying a few words to a number of the diplomats. After the performance the company adjourned to the four supper rooms, the members of royalty occupying one, the diplomats another, and the suites of foreign princes the two remaining. The Emperor retired to rest before midnight. At all the European capitals the German Ministers held receptions.

Prince Bismarck has assured the Crown Prince Rudolph of Austria-Hungary, who represented his father at the Emperor's birthday celebration, that Germany's foreign policy is pacific, that peace is assured for 1887, and that there is no cause for disquietude in either the East or West. The comment of the Berlin *National Gazette* is: "The signs of peace that are coming from all sides testify that the occasion is treated in the most splendid and un-

equivocal manner as a European peace festival. The imposing assembly of princes which has gathered around the Emperor represents the common desire of Europe to maintain the existing state of things. The alliance between Austria, Italy, and Germany, finally concluded only within the last few days, constitutes one of the firmest supports of the tranquillity and security of Europe."

The German Reichstag on March 21 passed the second reading of the Army Budget Bill, agreeing by a large majority to vote the grant which was several times rejected by the former Reichstag for the construction of military schools for non-commissioned officers.

Experiments with an explosive invented by Lieut. Graydon, late of the United States Navy, have been made at the Fortress of Spandau, near Berlin, under the supervision of German officers—it is reported, with success.

The new alliance between Germany, Austria, and Italy places each of these Powers on an equality. All three will undertake the protection of the interests of each of them. Annoyance has been expressed in Paris that the treaty was signed while the attention of France was fixed upon Germany. A former foreign minister of France is reported to have said: "I would have shrunk from nothing to prevent the signing of this treaty, which I consider the most serious and vexatious event for us that has happened in the past sixteen years." But the treaty is regarded as a guarantee of the peace of Europe for some time to come, unless Russia makes the breach.

More arrests have been made of persons suspected of complicity in the recent plot to kill the Czar. An institute at St. Petersburg for the higher education of women has been closed, and the Rector of the University threatens to stop his lectures. It is reported that the Czar has received a letter from the Executive Nihilist Committee, informing him that at a sitting of the Committee on February 22 he was condemned to death. In an "official declaration," made at St. Petersburg, it is said: "The Czar's advisers are convinced that the influential classes in Russia do not consider that the time has yet arrived for the introduction of a constitutional government. Nor do the Pan Slavist party desire constitutionalism. State socialism, recently promoted in Germany by Prince Bismarck, is being carefully studied by the Russian Government, the Czar being well disposed in favor of such progressive economic changes in the territories under Russian sway as shall conduce to the happiness and welfare of the Russian people."

The rumor is reported from Kabul that the Amir is inciting a holy war against Russia, and denouncing the Czar as a tyrant and promise-breaker.

On his return from Berlin to Paris M. de Lesseps maintained the truth of his assertion that Germany and France were natural friends having common interests. He repeated Bismarck's assurance of this in these words: "May we some day exclaim that we should be stupid to kill each other; let us join forces and be masters of the world. We should then be able to work for the progress of civilization."

Sir G. O. Trevelyan, Unionist, in a speech at Liskeard on March 16, expressed the conviction that the leaders who had been separated from the Liberal party by their objections to the Gladstone bills would never return to that party unless their objections were definitely met, but that it was possible to reconcile the differences, and to deal with the Irish question in a manner more thorough than the half-hearted style of the Conservatives.

On the 17th Mr. Gladstone spoke at a dinner given by Yorkshire members of the House of Commons, and said that there was a growing opinion in favor of home rule even among former opponents. He counselled Lord

Salisbury to waken from his sleep if he wished to banish his "nightmare of English politics." He repeated that it was impossible to deal with other questions until the Irish question had been cleared out of the way. The most significant parts of the speech were these: "We are agreed that Ireland asks effective self-government in affairs properly and exclusively Irish, subject to the unquestionable supremacy of the Imperial Parliament. Should she extend her demands beyond this limit, I frankly tell you I could no longer promote her cause; but so long as the demands she utters are just and within the bounds of moderation, I will stand fast to her cause during what remains to me of political life." "I accept Sir George Trevelyan's desire for reunion as proof of the loyalty of his heart towards us, but I so far differ with him that if the Tories are able to settle the question satisfactorily, I wish them with all my heart to do so. The present schism in our party is useful, showing that we, as a political body, are placing national and material questions above party considerations. While there is so much talk about offers and proposals of conferences, let us not conceal from ourselves the fact that this is strictly not a question of individuals, but one of nations, and when nations collide individuals are liable to be uncomfortably squeezed." "I at once tell you this, and make the confession that in our proposal in behalf of the Irish landlords we went to the furthest point in their behalf. I cherish the hope that it will be perfectly possible to devise a plan for the safe purchase of estates in Ireland, whereby the landlord will receive perfect security with respect to the price of his property, without trenching on the imperial credit." "What I earnestly desire is a gradual approximation of not only the Liberal ranks, but of the nation at large."

Before the Parliamentary Committee appointed to investigate the charges against the London Corporation on March 18, Mr. Firth, formerly a member of Parliament, deposed that a special committee had been appointed in 1882 to oppose the Reform Bill, and that £50,000 was expended by the Committee. He said that practically the city accounts had never been audited. Meetings held in support of the Reform Bill were raided by ruffians who had been supplied with thousands of forged tickets of admission by Corporation officials. A man named Hodge made an affidavit that he had been engaged to bribe ruffians to break up reform meetings.

The closure rule was adopted by the House of Commons on March 18, only forty-one voting against it.

The House of Commons was in session all night March 21-22, and did not adjourn till 1:25 o'clock the next afternoon. The Government insisted on disposing of the Naval and Civil Service Bills, but the Home-Rule members, by obstructive tactics, prevented action on either measure as long as possible, because Mr. Balfour, Secretary for Ireland, had given notice of the introduction of a coercive measure. When the House met on the evening of March 22, Mr. William Henry Smith, the Government leader, moved that the bill for the amendment of the criminal law in Ireland have precedence over all orders of the day. This precipitated a long and spirited debate. Mr. Morley denied absolutely Mr. Smith's assertions as to the lawless condition of Ireland, and demanded that the Government give comparative statistics of crime in Ireland, which, he said, would show that beyond a certain very narrow area the country had seldom been quieter. The Government's proposed restrictive legislation would only aggravate such evils as existed, and would weaken and spoil whatever remedies they had in store. His deliberate conviction was that there had never been a more wanton, gratuitous, and unjustifiable resort to the ever-failing, ever-poisonous remedy of coercion. Mr. Smith and Mr. Balfour replied at length. Although neither of them made any explicit

statement of the Government's Irish measures, an analysis of their speeches shows that a definite policy has been decided upon and fully elaborated. The programme begins with the Coercion Bill conjoined with a tenants' relief bill, to be introduced in the House of Lords. The relief proposals will consist of giving tenants power to stay evictions by declaring their inability to pay full rent and wiping out the claim by surrender to the Bankruptcy Court. A measure for land purchase, based upon Mr. Chamberlain's land bank scheme, will follow. If the Government should be defeated at any point in the development of their policy they will not resign, but will appeal to the country.

A feature of the observance of St. Patrick's Day in England was the appearance of many Englishmen wearing shamrocks.

Father Keller, a Catholic priest, was arrested on March 18 at Youghal, Ireland, for refusing to give information concerning the plan of campaign, which, he declared, he had received in confidence from members of his flock. He was carried to Dublin, and on the way crowds cheered him as the "martyr priest." At Dublin, on the 19th, he was driven to court in the Lord Mayor's carriage. Father Keller, being sworn, refused to testify as to his custody of tenants' money as trustee under the "plan of campaign." He was then committed for contempt and was ordered to enter a cab in the custody of officers. The people made a rush for the vehicle, removed the horses, and dragged it through the streets to Kilmainham Jail, where the priest was locked up. Archbishop Walsh, Mr. William O'Brien, Lord Mayor Sullivan, and Mr. Timothy Harrington, M. P., followed the priest to the jail in carriages. The people marched after them singing "God Save Ireland" and "We'll hang Judge Boyd on a sour orange tree," and they uncovered their heads on arriving there. Mr. O'Brien predicted in an address to the crowd that the conflict which had been begun would end in the destruction of Tory power and "the present infamous system of alien misrule." Father Keller remarked that his journey had been more like that of a conqueror than of an humble pastor. Archbishop Croke, in an address presented to Father Keller, said: "No Government has ever grappled successfully with Irish priesthood. The present Government will rue the day it threw down a fresh gage of battle." Mr. John Dillon, in the House of Commons, protested against the arrest, and Mr. Parnell declared that Mr. Balfour would not escape "retribution and the judgment of history as one who had entered upon a task of bloodshed with a light heart, or as one who, during a short period in office, had shown more callousness and indifference than any previous Secretary."

Bishop Keane of Richmond, Va., preached a sermon on Sunday in the Irish Franciscan Church of St. Isidore, at Rome, on the subject of St. Patrick and the Irish nation, in which he emphatically expressed a desire for greater Irish liberty.

The April number of *Macmillan's Magazine* will contain Tennyson's Jubilee Ode to Queen Victoria.

At a meeting of citizens of Halifax on March 17, it was decided to offer a silver cup valued at \$500 for a yacht-race prize on June 21, in connection with the Queen's jubilee celebration. Halifax is the only imperial military station in British North America, and on that date there will be a naval and military review there.

A public consistory was held at Rome on March 19, when the eight new Cardinals, Archbishop Gonzales of Toledo, Mgr. Aloisi-Masella, ex-Nuncio at Lisbon, Archbishop Taschereau of Quebec, Archbishop Gibbons of Baltimore, Archbishop Bernadou of Sens, Archbishop Place of Rennes, Archbishop Langénieux of Reims, and Archbishop Giordani of Ferrara, were batted by the Pope with the imposing ceremony of the Church.

DEMOCRATIC PREPARATIONS.

It is said to be the confident belief of a considerable number of shrewd men in the Democratic party that "Cleveland cannot be renominated," and all the subsoiling and pipe-laying which is now going on in this State in preparation for the Convention next year is said to be conducted on this assumption. Of course, the reasons for this opinion are various, but the most powerful one is his unsatisfactory behavior both with regard to appointments and dismissals from office. He has kept too many Republicans in their places, and he has in filling vacancies paid too little attention to recommendations. In other words, he has taken the reform talk of his party in its platforms and on the stump too seriously, and he has not taken Congressmen into his confidence as much as party custom is thought to require. Whenever the tale of these woes is told to a listener on whom they do not seem to make sufficient impression, they are apt to be fortified by a whisper that "Cleveland does not really want a renomination, and would not take it if it were offered him to-morrow"; that he is tired of official life, and longs for retirement, with the accompaniment of domestic happiness, which is now for the first time within his reach. The authority for this statement is never given, but it is usually garnished with enough nods and winks to make it appear that it comes direct from either the President and Mrs. Cleveland, or Col. Lamont, his private secretary, and therefore there is no use in attacking it on the score of improbability.

Now, we do not propose to dispute with the various adroit gentlemen who are engaged in overhauling and oiling the nominating machinery in this State, either as to the merits of Mr. Cleveland's Administration or as to the chances of his renomination. They know as well as we do, and better than we, the uncertainties which attend the action of conventions, the frequency with which the politicians of one State find their most careful arrangements completely upset by countercurrents of sentiment from other States when the Convention meets. Delusion on this point is likely to be unusually great in New York this year, owing both to the fact that President Cleveland is a New York product, and to the fact that this is the only State in which the politicians have gone to work to manufacture a rival and successor for him. Those who go to the Convention to rail and intrigue against him from his own State will think themselves greatly strengthened, therefore, by being able to offer a substitute. What we have to suggest is, that they should take into account now the absolute ignorance of that portion of the community which lies outside the circle of managing politicians, about the things which most damage Mr. Cleveland in their eyes. The reasons why he cannot be renominated are, we venture to assert, not known to-day to over one thousand of the eleven or twelve millions who will cast ballots at the election of 1888.

This, it must be admitted, is for Mr. Cleveland's enemies a state of things which cannot be remedied too soon. It will not do to let the Southern and Western delegates get together

under the impression which, we venture to assert, now prevails among their constituents, that Mr. Cleveland has done so well that not only is there no reason why he should not be renominated, but that his renomination is an absolute necessity to the party if it wishes to retain control of the Government. This, of course, may be a very false impression. It may be that the managers in New York could destroy it if they chose. It is certain, however, that it cannot be destroyed suddenly. It will take time to do it. It is no easy matter, as every one knows who has had to do with the shaping of public opinion on any subject, to rid the popular mind of an opinion once formed. Anybody who undertakes the work cannot begin too early, or repeat himself too much. Any one, therefore, who means to have the Convention throw Mr. Cleveland overboard when it meets, unless he can count on a letter from Mr. Cleveland positively declining the nomination before the Convention meets, should go to work at once to prepare reasons against his nomination which will bear publicity.

All those reasons of which we have heard anything, or which are in circulation in the inner councils of party management, are in a certain sense secret and confidential. They are the kind of objection that men communicate to their friends after dinner, or over brandy and soda in clubs and cafés, which they have generally heard from somebody else, and which it would be base to give to a newspaper reporter. But something less delicate than this will be needed to affect the Convention. Arguments must be prepared which will bear publication of the widest kind on the stump and in the press; arguments which can not only be whispered but shouted, and which plain people who do not occupy themselves much with party machinery, can understand and appreciate. We do not say there are no such arguments. We simply say that they have not yet seen the light, and that it is time that they did. The delusion that Mr. Cleveland—if delusion it be—has made a good President is widespread and deep-seated. It would be little short of madness for his opponents in this State to allow delegates from other States to be elected under its influence, and to remain steeped in it between now and next year. We trust, therefore, we shall soon see the objections to him set out in black and white.

THE READJUSTER INCIDENT.

THE retirement of Mahone from the United States Senate marks the end of a curious incident in American politics. It is true that his colleague, Riddleberger, has two years still to serve, but Riddleberger is an utter nonentity, except when he makes himself a nuisance, and has no political weight whatever. When Mahone's term expired, the Mahone party virtually collapsed.

William Mahone was a "Confederate Brigadier" from Virginia during the civil war, and a leading Democrat in the years succeeding the war. He was openly charged by the Republicans with responsibility for some of the grossest frauds by which the negro voters were cheated out of their rights, and he remained in close affiliation with the Democratic Machine

until it refused to gratify his ambition for the Governorship. Finding that it was impossible for him to control his own party, he went to work to organize another party which he could boss. The debt question gave him just the opportunity which he needed. A considerable proportion of the white voters were ready to welcome a movement for partial repudiation. The ignorant mass of black voters could, of course, be easily solidified in support of such a movement. The only thing requisite was an unscrupulous man, familiar with the worst methods of Machine politics, and Mahone exactly filled the bill. The man and the opportunity met. In 1879 a Legislature was chosen which elected Mahone to the United States Senate as a Repudiator, under the more euphonious title of Readjuster.

Thus far the matter had been purely a State affair, with which the Republican party of the nation had nothing to do. But when, upon the opening of the special session of the Senate, after Garfield's inauguration in March, 1881, Mahone went up to Washington to take his seat, the Republican party of the nation was called upon to define its position towards him. There was but one thing for it to do. It had always opposed repudiation and prided itself upon its honorable financial record. Mahone's policy in Virginia had been opposed by the white Republicans of character and honor, and a fifth of the Republicans in the Legislature had voted against his election to the Senate. He was a boss of the most odious type, whose personal record was so bad as to forfeit the sympathy of good men. Every consideration of party and public policy forbade his receiving any support from the Republicans in the Senate.

But parties were so evenly divided just then that Mahone held the "balance of power" in the Senate. He was ready to support the Republicans if they would violate all their professions of fidelity to civil-service reform, turn out the efficient Democratic officials of the Senate, and give the place of Sergeant-at-Arms to his man Riddleberger. He held out also the hope that, if properly supported by "patronage," he could make a break in the "solid South," and turn over the electoral vote of Virginia to the Republican candidate for President in 1884. The Republicans yielded to the temptation, and Mr. George Frisbie Hoar, in a burst of bathos, thus welcomed this soldier of fortune, this boss, this repudiator:

"There are Democrats in the South who do not mean to live any longer in the graveyards and among the tombs, whose face is toward the morning, and on whose brow the rising sunlight of the future generations of this country is already beginning to be visible. Of such Democrats the *avant-courrier* has already reached the Senate chamber after long waiting and yearning. The Republicans of the North desire to stretch forth a friendly hand."

The White House was as friendly as the Senate Chamber, and a Republican President turned over to Mahone all the patronage of Virginia. Six years have passed, and what is the result of this "*avant-courrier's*" work? The public sentiment of Virginia regarding the State debt has been utterly demoralized. The Republican party of the State has degenerated into a merely personal organization, controlled for the private ends of the ruling boss. The

standard of politics in the Old Dominion has been so lowered under his rule that the worst faults of the old Bourbons appear venial in comparison with his sway, and his downfall was welcomed scarcely less warmly by honest Republicans throughout the country than by honest Democrats in Virginia. The split in the solid South has not come, and the prejudice of the better class of whites against a Republican party which is represented by a repudiator is stronger than it was six years ago. Mahone himself can no longer give the Republicans in the Senate the assistance of his tainted vote, and the colleague whom he has left there, fit pupil of such a master, is a man so unscrupulous and untrustworthy that nobody feels any assurance that he will not go over to the Democrats for the remaining two years of his term.

It should not have required such an experience to convince anybody that a "party of moral ideas" could not touch the pitch of repudiation and escape being defiled; but nothing short of such a lesson could have taught anything to men who were in the state of frenzy which Mr. Hoar exhibited when he delivered his apostrophe to Mahone. Fortunately the lesson has been so effective that it may be hoped its effect will be lasting, and that we shall not soon see a great national party throwing away all its principles, in the hope that corruption will win more than honesty.

EMIGRATION FROM GERMANY.

THE influence of economic forces in determining the strength and direction of the emigration of man is beyond question, and the course of immigration into the United States from all parts of the world during the last twenty-five years is evidence of this influence. Natural causes, however, have been of greater importance during that period than artificial, and interest has centred more in this country and its conditions than in the countries where the migration originated. The introduction of a series of artificial influences offers a new feature which may command some notice, and nowhere has this feature been more prominent than in Germany.

Since 1878 the German Government has exercised a continually increasing control over the economy of its people, which has now reached an extent and thoroughness that, when considered with the rapidity with which the measures were conceived and carried into execution, surpass the efforts of any other European nation in that direction during the last fifty years. In 1878 a system of factory inspection was framed, still imperfect in its performance, but very useful in protecting the lives, health, and general interests of factory operatives; in 1879 the policy of protection to home industries was raised to a principle by the framing of a tariff designed to exclude foreign competition; then followed the legal institution of sick and invalid funds by employers and their men, and finally in October last the Accident Insurance Law, applying to workers on farms as well as to workers in factories, went into operation. The general intention of these measures was to improve the condition of the workingman, and to enlarge his opportuni-

ties for employment; and while it is difficult to say whether there has been a positive advance in wages or in the general welfare of the German workingman, the hope, at least, of a benefit has been held out to him, his rigid dependence upon his daily labor for his daily bread has been somewhat loosened, and age, sickness, or disability has no longer the same terrors for him. To these State measures should be added the efforts of individual firms, also tending to make the position of the laborer more endurable.

The general thrift of the German workingman would enable him to make the most of whatever improvement these reforms might involve; and a few pennies saved, as the reports of the inspectors of factories show, would widen materially the margin between sufficiency and want. Of the enlarged opportunity for employment there can be little doubt, for the development of mining and manufacturing industries has been very great. In 1883 207,577 men were employed in mining black coal, as compared with 170,509 in 1879. The copper mines gave employment to 14,326 miners in 1883, and 9,118 in 1879. The number of furnaces and foundries increased during the same period from 227 to 270, and the hands employed from 32,242 to 42,724. While this increase of employment has been especially marked in the metal and sugar industries, it has also occurred in other branches of manufacture. This great increase in the demand for labor in manufactures—though not commensurate with the rapid growth of the German population—and the consciousness that the Government is exercising a watchful care over their concerns, have doubtless deterred many from emigrating to the United States who would otherwise have gone.

Have these influences yet affected the emigration of skilled labor from Germany to the United States? The tide of German emigration has of late years been fed chiefly from the sparsely settled agricultural districts, like Mecklenburg and Pomerania, and not from the industrial districts, like Saxony and the Rhineland. The succession of bad harvests that followed 1873, resulting in the extensive absorption of small farms into large holdings, may explain the movement. It is not the farming element, however, that now interests us, but the skilled labor, and in this case skilled labor refers to domestic or *hand* skill, and not to mechanical skill. As the German Government keeps no records of the occupations of emigrants, the Treasury reports must supply the information.

Since 1873 the percentage of skilled labor of the total immigration from Germany has been:

1873.....	10.03	per cent.	1880.....	12.86	per cent.
1874.....	11.18	"	1881.....	11.41	"
1875.....	13.82	"	1882.....	10.58	"
1876.....	13.62	"	1883.....	12.93	"
1877.....	14.54	"	1884.....	12.31	"
1878.....	14.25	"	1885.....	10.44	"
1879.....	13.48	"	1886.....	11.01	"

The year 1873 was in great part a time of great inflation in this country, and during it the effects of the war between France and Prussia, also, may have swelled unduly the total emigration. 1879 marked the last of six years of almost universal stagnation and depression; while 1886 was a year of moderate depression. As skilled labor receives higher

wages and is in better demand than common labor, it is less likely to be so severely influenced in its power to emigrate by years of depression than is the latter; and, in fact, it does form a larger proportion of the emigration in a bad than in a good year, when it is overwhelmed by great movements in the lower and unskilled classes of population, who seize upon any temporary advantage to migrate. So that while the percentage in 1886 is, according to the table, about the same as it was in 1874, it really marks a decided falling off, as it should be nearer the percentage of 1877 or 1878.

There is another method of reaching the same conclusion. In 1873 48,792 skilled immigrants landed in the United States; in 1879 the number had fallen to 21,362, and in 1886 had again risen to 36,522. These figures represent 10.6, 12, and 11 per cent. of the total immigration in the respective years. Of the skilled immigrants Germany supplied 30.77 per cent. in 1873, 21.37 per cent. in 1879, and 25.45 per cent. in 1886, and did not therefore follow the general variations, but one peculiar to itself, giving a high average in 1873, a low one in 1879, and a medium in 1886, as compared with a low general average in 1873, and higher averages in 1879 and 1886. The conclusion is that the domestic policy of Germany has influenced unfavorably the movement of skilled labor to this country.

This influence can hardly be permanent, because it depends upon the continued success of artificial relations, relations, it may be added, that are working their own failure. The productive energies of the empire cannot be indefinitely expanded at a rapid rate, for the markets for the products are more and more difficult to obtain, and cannot be held by bounties and subsidies save at great cost. There are already indications of a partial break down, more especially in the sugar and iron industries, where over-stimulation has resulted in over-production, and, as a further consequence, in bankrupt works, lower wages, and masses of labor without employment and willing to work for a pittance. The same extreme condition may not result in the less favored industries, but the immunity of Germany from the economic ills that have beset other nations since 1879 is being broken down, and labor must suffer. It is not a rash prediction to assert that unless a period of prosperity intervenes, the migration of skilled labor, and this time of labor familiar with the use of machinery, from Germany to the United States may be greater than ever in a few years. Assisted emigration to German colonies may for the time deflect the current from this country, but the advantages to be gained here are too great to be overthrown by any system of moderate State aid. The question is not without interest to the economist.

WHY HAS INTEREST IN POLITICS DECLINED IN ENGLAND?

LONDON, March 4, 1887.

THE causes of a singular and perhaps permanent alteration in national character are in the main twofold:

(1.) The gradual transformation of an aristocratic into a democratic Constitution.

An aristocratic government means of necessity

the administration of public affairs by persons intensely interested in the work (or the game) of politics. A king may hold power simply because he is the descendant of kings. Louis XV. ruled France because he was the descendant of Louis XIV. Charles II. would never have influenced the destinies of England had he not represented a long line of monarchs. A democracy may, for a time, maintain itself by the simple weight of numbers. American citizens may or may not be vigilant to protect their own rights, but the huge force of the collective People is enough to crush even the thought of an anti-democratic revolution. Whether the apparent immensity of the force at the disposal of a democracy will, in the long run, be sufficient to protect popular governments from attack, is an open question. All that my argument requires is the fact that, where the mass of the citizens constitute the ruling power in a state, the mere weight of numbers may, without any great energy on the part of individuals, keep the Constitution in force. Where a limited number of noble families bear sway, there must be a constant struggle for the maintenance of power. With the English aristocracy this certainly has been so. One portion of English history is, in effect, the struggle of the nobles to keep alive rights menaced by the Crown. Another portion is, in effect, a contest to maintain rights or privileges against the increasing power of the people.

Nor is this attitude of conflict the sole circumstance which, under an aristocratic régime, invests politics with a special interest. Government carried on by the members of wealthy and high-born families is not "personal government" in the sense in which that term is now generally employed, but it is a government by prominent persons. It is a form of rule in which personal considerations, personal interests, the virtues no less than the vices of definite individuals, exercise immense weight on the policy of the commonwealth. The private vices of Fox and of Sheridan, the personal defects of George III., the disinterestedness of Chatham, the inscrutability of Lord Shelburne, all went a great way to determine the fortunes of England. No doubt another kind of personal influence has, as we all know, immense weight in a democratic society. But this influence flows from power over the multitude possessed by some one leader. It does not in the main depend upon what we may call the family peculiarities, which often tell decisively on the policy that prevails under an aristocratic constitution. The expressions, "the great families," "the Revolution families," "the Newcastle interest," and the like, which abound in memoirs of the last century, suggest a good deal to any one who reflects on the latent meaning of current phrases. They signify, among other things, that the leading politicians of a former age public affairs were, in fact, family affairs. Contests for power had, if you like, the narrowness, the bitterness, and the selfishness, but they possessed also the absorbing interest, of quarrels among relations. The world will have undergone a revolution unlike any change of which history has preserved the record, when men cease to grow enthusiastic, or zealous, or hot, or passionate about the virtues or defects, the wisdom or the cunning, of themselves or their relatives. Limit the field of public life to a comparatively small body of persons, and you insure that political controversy shall be at least as interesting as gossip. If anything be still wanting to the excitement of party contests, make the pecuniary prosperity of public men depend upon the success of their party; you will then be sure to see the fire of political fervor blaze up again with renewed brightness. When, as in the last century, public life might be the road to fortune, bad men and good men alike were as keen about public affairs as

men are now about success at the bar or in business.

It was, moreover, under these circumstances, possible to believe in all cases, what was true in some instances, that a man's political opponents were actuated by the basest of base motives. Modern rhetoric languishes for want of the patent gross vices which rhetoric should be employed to scourge. The last real triumph of rhetorical invective is to be found in the effect produced by Disraeli's attacks on Peel. Yet one cannot doubt that Lord Beaconsfield, as a critic, would have admitted that his denunciations were deficient in something which gives their real force to the sarcasms of Junius. This "something" was the possibility of imputing pecuniary corruption to the Minister made the object of attack. The readers of Junius could believe without difficulty—though in many cases the belief was grossly unjust—that the interest of the nation was sacrificed to the cupidity of Ministers. Not the bitterest protectionist in the House of Commons could have been brought to believe that Peel repealed the Corn Laws to fill his own pockets. Private vices may or may not be public benefits, but they assuredly add at times a good deal to the interest of political life. It would, however, be no less unfair than absurd to suppose that in the main the interest felt in politics fifty years or a century ago was due to the vices of aristocratic government. It was caused quite as much by the one great merit of an aristocratic constitution. Institutions which lead the baser kind of men to look upon public affairs as matters mainly of private interest, lead nobler spirits to identify their own interests with the prosperity of the commonwealth. George the Third's Duke of Newcastle was not an impressive representative of the English aristocracy, but, when he left office, he displayed one element of dignity which should never be forgotten. He had greatly reduced his private fortune in the service of the state, and he declined all compensation. With the more heroic leaders of the same age, the same trait appears under nobler forms. They were reckless, unscrupulous, even greedy of gain for themselves, and still more for their followers. But they knew how to spend lavishly money, strength, and talent in what seemed to them the service of the state, even when it took the form of devotion to a party.

English party spirit was both intensified and occasionally exalted into patriotism by the existence of two conditions in the state of the world which appear—for the moment, at least—to have no existence. The first was the striking contrast between the freedom and grandeur of the great English free state, and the despotism and meanness prevailing among the states of the Continent. The second was the peril of invasion. We are all apt to forget that, until Napoleon's schemes of attacking England were finally baffled, there was always before the English mind a sense of possible armed attack from France. Whoever will study in the 'Annual Register' the account of the court-martial held on Admiral Keppel, will see that a century ago the French fleet might appear to Englishmen as fearful a menace as does the German army of to-day to Frenchmen. Whoever reads 'Peter Plymley's Letters' will see that an observer as calm as Sydney Smith could fear to see French soldiers encamped round London, as truly as French journalists may dread to see German armies at Versailles. When a feeble foreign policy may result in encouraging the invasion of England, the question whether Tories or Whigs were in power had for Englishmen an immediate personal importance hardly realized by men who feel as if the worst blunder we could make must lead to no worse calamity than the sacrifice of prestige in Afghanistan.

Add to all this that the interests of the members of an aristocracy are generally as narrow as they are intense. Englishmen wonder, when they read about their forefathers, to learn that eminent statesmen left the House of Commons for the gambling table or for the prize fight. But if you turn the matter the other way, it comes to this—that the statesmen of a past generation had no elevating occupation but the pursuit of politics. England, it may be said, has not for centuries been governed wholly by an aristocracy. This is true; but the point to note is, that while the Constitution was aristocratic, the tone of the country was the tone of the nobility. A political class governed the nation, and imbued the whole nation with political passion. Under a modern democracy it is necessarily otherwise. Power lies with the masses, but the interest of the crowd cannot be mainly political. The majority of mankind are of necessity occupied, in one form or another, with earning their livelihood. This is true of the professional no less than of the working classes; but, of course, the lower down you go in the grade of wealth, the more absorbing becomes the struggle for existence. It is vain to suppose that English laborers can occupy their time in thoughts about politics: their heart must be in their daily work. A proposal to abolish outdoor relief, or to relax the rules which compel paupers to go into a workhouse, would, we may be quite certain, kindle more feeling of one kind or another among the country laborers of England than would a proposal to give up our Indian Empire or to allow the establishment of an Irish republic. That this is so, is no matter for indignation. The inevitable should never excite anger. High policies and grand schemes of statecraft are at bottom but devices for securing to large bodies of men the happiness of civilized existence. This, however, may be confidently asserted, that when power lies with the majority of the people, schemes directly affecting popular comfort or happiness will excite more general emotion than plans dignified with the name of high policy. Here we come across a second cause for the changed attitude of Englishmen towards politics.

(2.) The increased interest felt in religious and social questions.

In one form or another, every thinker who influenced public life in England during the last century (or, indeed, till late into the earlier part of this century) shared one belief, namely, the importance for good or bad of constitutional, and what we may call purely political, arrangements. To this general statement Burke, it will be said, was an exception. But the exception is only apparent. He perceived, indeed, the side of truth popularly embodied in the maxim that "constitutions grow but are not made." But his consistent opposition to even small changes in the form of the Constitution certainly shows that he had not grasped the conclusion which many modern politicians practically draw from the maxim I have cited, that alterations in the form of a constitution, if they cannot effect any great good, need not be resisted, because they can produce no great harm. Now as long as this belief in the importance of alterations in the Constitution of England held its ground, the result followed that politics remained a matter of interest, since the success of a party might involve alterations in the form of the Constitution. The men who advocated or opposed the abolition of rotten boroughs did so because they believed that to deprive Old Sarum of her member was to smooth the path of rapid progress, or else was to open the door to fundamental and violent revolution. The statesmen who, a year or two back, could not even get up a decent party battle over the question of extending household suffrage to the counties, must have felt, though very possibly

without reason, that changes in the Parliamentary franchise were at bottom matters of trivial importance. This state of feeling no doubt flows in great part from the success with which, in England, constitutional changes have been carried through without producing any palpable disturbance in the social condition of the country. But it is partly to be attributed to other causes. Methodism, it has been well remarked, turned the working classes of England away from revolutionary towards religious aspirations, and it seems almost past a doubt that the "interest"—remember I do not say "passion," which is quite a different matter—aroused among the English public by theological or religious discussion, has tended to lower the excitement of political controversy. Let any one read carefully through the pages of the *London Spectator*. He will find therein a great deal about politics, but, if my supposed reader will weigh the matter carefully, he will, I think, come to the conclusion that the readers of that periodical are a good deal more interested in theological than in political questions. Some years ago some letter or article in the *Spectator* gave rise to correspondence about the efficacy of prayer. What thousands of communications the editors must have received I can only conjecture, but to the most casual observer the fact soon became apparent that the discretion of the editors, and not the weariness of the public, put an end to a discussion which, after being continued for weeks, still apparently possessed an unlimited attraction for the large body of intelligent readers.

Theology, however, has, it is supposed (whether truly or not I cannot say), little interest for the masses. What undoubtedly has an interest for them is any topic which can be brought within the limits of what is vaguely called Socialism. No two books can be conceived which at a first blush differ more from each other than the 'Life and Work of the Seventh Earl of Shaftesbury' and Besant's 'Children of Gibeon.' But though the one work is long, stiff, solid, and, if the truth be said, a trifle dull, and the other amusing, bright, and, to speak with equal veracity, not a little shallow, they both breathe one spirit. They both are filled with the conviction that the state of the poor and the improvement of that state by social efforts are the topics, and I might almost say the only topics, worth the consideration of humane and rational men. Whatever may be the case with the poor themselves, one thing is apparent with regard to the wealthier classes: the most enthusiastic, if not always the wisest, men among them are turning their minds towards social rather than to political problems. Nor, if social questions are really the chief concern of the age, is it out of harmony with the habitual course of English history that well-to-do Englishmen should become the leaders of the mass of the people in what, under their guidance, may ultimately turn out a pacific and beneficial revolution. Meanwhile, one may be quite sure that, the capacity of the human mind and heart being limited, interest given to the improvement of houses in the East End is in general so much interest diverted from questions affecting the preservation of the Constitution or the integrity of the Empire. Socialism in all its forms is at bottom the foe to patriotism. A generation supremely interested in social reform is likely also to be a generation more or less indifferent to political conflicts, except in so far as they immediately affect the material welfare of the people.

AN OBSERVER.

SCHERER'S GRIMM.

PARIS, March 7, 1887.

If there is a writer upon whom the mantle of Sainte-Beuve may be said to have fallen, it is

M. Edmond Scherer. Unfortunately politics has for many years absorbed much of his time, and, as his moderate views are not triumphant, his political work may be said to have been lost. It is not so with his literary work. He has already published eight volumes of studies on contemporary literature, one volume of 'Mélanges d'histoire religieuse,' one volume on Diderot; and he gives us now a volume on 'Melchior Grimm, the Man of Letters, the Factotum, the Diplomat.'

Grimm has acquired universal renown by his 'Literary Correspondence,' though very few people have taken the trouble in our time to read it. In his own time he was somewhat obscure. His name first became familiar after the publication of the second part of Rousseau's 'Confessions' (which came out in 1788), and more so after the publication of the memoirs of Mme. d'Épinay, eleven years after his death. The famous 'Correspondence' was private, and was only published in 1812. In 1833 Sainte-Beuve wrote two articles on him; before that date Danzel had been occupied with Grimm in his book 'Gottsched and his Time,' which appeared in 1848. The Russian Historical Society published in 1878 the correspondence between Grimm and Catherine of Russia, and afterwards completed its work by the publication of letters which have recently been found in Poland. Grimm's 'Literary Correspondence' has had several editions, the best being the last, and the work of M. Tournoux. We have now probably all the documents which concern Grimm, and we can easily conceive that M. Scherer should have been tempted to write his biography.

Frederic Melchior Grimm was born at Ratisbon on September 26, 1723; his family was poor, his father one of the Lutheran ministers of the town. He was well educated, and made at Leipzig the acquaintance of Gottsched. He wrote a tragedy while he was at the University—a very flat tragedy. He lived for a short time in the family of the Schomburgs as a tutor, and in 1748 went to France with a young member of that family. He became reader to the Duke of Saxe-Gotha, who was then in Paris, and Rousseau even says that for a while he remained "chez des filles du quartier Saint-Roch." The Comte de Fries took him as a secretary. They were both young; the Count was rich and fond of pleasure. He gave weekly dinners to Diderot, Rousseau, Helvétius, Marmontel. Grimm had not been two years in Paris before he became acquainted with a number of people. His young and profligate patron was trying to imitate the heroes of Richardson and Laclos. Grimm himself was more sentimental. Rousseau laughs at his great passion for Mlle. Fel, a celebrated singer at the Opéra. The Abbé Raynal was one of Grimm's confidants. Mlle. Fel did not take pity on the poor German; she treated him with marked contempt, and his vanity cured him of his love.

Grimm rapidly renounced his mother tongue, and began to write in French. He wrote articles on theatrical representations, made his debut in the *Mercur*; and when he wrote 'Le Petit Prophète,' which was the event of a day, Voltaire said, "What means this little Bohemian who dares to have more wit than ourselves?" The 'Petit Prophète' related to the arrival of the Italian Bouffe in Paris, and to the great quarrel between the Italian and the French schools of music. It has lost much of its interest, but it gave to Grimm his letters of naturalization. The success of the 'Petit Prophète' was immense. Grimm, who made himself the patron of the Italian music, became also one of the protectors of Mozart, who arrived in 1763 in Paris with his father. The decisive moment in his life was the beginning of the correspondence which he sent, every fortnight for twenty years, to the various

courts of Europe. Others before him had undertaken a similar work; the intellectual supremacy of France, the scarcity of journals, explain such undertakings. The news from Paris was awaited with impatience in Berlin, in St. Petersburg, at the dull little German courts.

Raynal, the author of the History of the Two Indies, chose Grimm as his successor for correspondence which he sent to the court of Germany. "I have made it my rule," said Grimm in 1766, "to send my correspondence only to princes. Important personages in England have offered me large sums for it, but I have never consented to send it to them." The price was not the same for all princes. The King of Poland, for instance, paid only forty ducats a year, or 400 francs; the Empress of Russia paid 300 rubles, or 1,500 francs. Goethe tells us that he shared the letters, by the courtesy of his friends at Weimar, and that he read them with great attention. Grimm not only gave all the literary news of the day, he sometimes gave extracts from remarkable works. The 'Correspondence' is a real mine of documents on the dramatic art of the eighteenth century. Grimm had a passion for the theatre, and his descriptions of Clairon, of Raucourt, of many others, are full of life. He is also the precursor of our modern school of criticism, which is not a dry analysis, but subjects a work to many collateral considerations, and shows it in all its surroundings. He is sometimes pompous, often heavy, too full of general theories on everything—on women, on art, on languages. He has the jargon of his time—love of nature, horror of fanaticism, sensibility, delicious emotions, tears running constantly from his eyes, and so on; but he has also much good sense, a real knowledge of men and things. Moreover, he is superior to the subjects which he treats, and sees everything from a high standpoint. He can be witty, he can be eloquent. Grimm's philosophy was different from the philosophy of the French "philosophes." Scherer goes perhaps a little too far when he sees in him an unconscious Positivist, an unconscious Darwinian, a moral Determinist. Grimm had the German tendency to generalization, but he was not very systematic. He did not much believe in progress; he said that "the finest centuries are precisely the germ of the centuries of decadence." There was in him a curious vein of scepticism; he often quarrelled with Diderot, who believed in human perfectibility. He believed that "Europe was threatened with some sinister revolution" long before 1789 and 1793.

In politics, the preferences of Grimm are for an enlightened despotism, but we must remember that he wrote for sovereigns. His social doctrine is well summed up in these lines:

"Let us not be children, and do not let us be afraid of words. In fact, there is no other right in the world than the right of the strongest; and if everything must be said, it is the only legitimate right. The moral world is composed of forces like the physical world; not to admit that the strongest must be the master, is as reasonable as not to be willing that a stone which weighs a hundred pounds should weigh more than the stone which weighs twenty pounds. It is this science of forces which gives the true elements of natural right and of the law of nations. Whether men were subjugated first by the force of arms, by persuasion, or by paternal authority, it is just the same: the truth is, that they are governed and always will be governed, that a man alone can do nothing against the mass of men and that he must endure its pressure, that the state of society is a forced state, in which action and reaction are continual."

Rousseau had been introduced to Mme. d'Épinay by Francueil; he himself introduced to her his friend Grimm. Mme. d'Épinay found herself at the time in a very critical situation. Her sister, at the point of death, had charged her to burn certain compromising letters.

Among these were supposed to be papers concerning a debt of M. d'Épinay, whose wife would thus have destroyed the proofs of the existence of this debt. The affair made much noise and was discussed everywhere. At a dinner given by the Comte de Friese, Grimm undertook the defence of Mme. d'Épinay, and a duel ensued in a garden of the hôtel. Grimm was slightly wounded, and Mme. d'Épinay could not but feel much gratitude for her "chevalier." Her complete innocence was proved some time afterwards, and the papers, which were supposed to be stolen, were found in the hands of a third party. Grimm became the friend, the adviser, the counsellor of Mme. d'Épinay, and by degrees his influence completely substituted itself for that of the tortuous and cynical Duclos, of the light-headed and light-hearted Francueil, who remembered at times that he had been the first lover of Mme. d'Épinay, and finally of Rousseau.

Scherer is very severe on Rousseau. He knows nothing more revolting than the second part of the "Confessions," in which Rousseau constantly denounces Mme. d'Épinay and Grimm:

"The most cynical egoism, the most odious ingratitude, the most insinuating malignity are allied to effusions of sensibility and to virtuous pretensions. All is base in this man, who thinks he excuses disgusting vices by confiding them to the public, throwing off the burden of gratitude by calumniating those who have spoiled him by the most touching attentions; whose favorite society is the servant who bears him children which he sends one after another to the Foundling Asylum. In vain do people say that he is mad, that his madness is increasing and characteristic; in vain are his malice, his duplicity, his suspicions considered as pathological symptoms; we feel that the soul of the writer was always vile, and we experience a sort of satisfaction in recognizing that, with all his talent, he never succeeded in disguising his native vulgarity."

Mme. d'Épinay may be said to have spent the second part of her life in repairing the errors of the first, and it cannot be denied that the influence of Grimm was very beneficial to her. Her Memoirs are, in Scherer's opinion, one of the most agreeable books of the eighteenth century, as curious as a document for the moral history of an epoch as they are captivating as a biography. At the death of the Comte de Friese, Grimm was appointed *secrétaire des commandements* of the Duke of Orleans. This title gave him a salary and no real duties. The judgment which Grimm passed in 1793, in a letter written to the Empress Catharine, on Orleans-Egalité, deserves to be cited, as it shows the better side of the Prince who voted for the death of Louis XVI. and paid for this dreadful error with his own death:

"He was not a genius, he was not an eagle; he had perhaps a rather *borné* mind. But nature had given him such an instinct for honor and for honest people that no bad character ever could approach, and still less circumvent him or abide near him. . . . Love of pleasure sometimes led him, like others, into bad company, but the dignity of his rank and a certain decency followed him even in his orgies; his companions in pleasure always found the Prince. The court of the Palais-Royal was extremely brilliant. Whatever was most respectable in France aspired to the honor of being admitted to it; it was not 'de bon ton' not to be of it, and if Louis XV. was King at Versailles, the Duke of Orleans was called the King of Paris."

Grimm had entered into communication with many princes, and he aspired to the honor of entering diplomacy. He first became the Minister of the free city of Frankfurt, with the salary of 24,000 livres a year, afterwards Minister of the Court of Saxe-Gotha. He accompanied German princes on their journeys in England and in Russia, and he finally became the friend of Catharine of Russia, who treated him with the greatest generosity. Mme. d'Épinay was ruined by her husband's dissipation. Her daughter married M. de Belsunce, and, after her death (which took place in 1783), Grimm took entire charge of Émilie, her

granddaughter. He interested the Empress Catharine in her fate, and married her to the Comte de Bueil. One of the last acts of Catharine was the nomination of Grimm as Minister of Russia at Hamburg. He did not remain long in this town, for the loss of an eye obliged him to hand in his resignation. The Emperors Paul and Alexander continued, however, to pay him his salary. He spent the remainder of his life in Gotha, in a house which the Duke placed at his disposal. Goethe saw him at Gotha in 1801. Grimm died December 19, 1807, at the age of eighty-four years. He said of his own life, after the death of Catharine: "Three-fourths of my life have been so happy that if I had died at the proper moment I might have been counted among the most fortunate of men; but the last fourth, so cruelly painful, has ended in a mortal blow, which found me defenceless." Grimm had seen the Revolution triumph; the world which he had known was no more; Napoleon was triumphant. Grimm had lived long enough to witness from his retreat the battles of Austerlitz and Jena, and the peace of Tilsit, which seemed the deathblow of Germany.

Correspondence.

SECTIONAL PARALYSIS OF CONGRESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Why is it that one Congress after another fails to make provision for the reduction of the tariff? It is not because of ignorance of the needs of the country, nor of faith in the justness of the present tariff laws. Every member of Congress understands perfectly well that our tariff laws are totally inadequate to the needs of the country, and that the superabundance of money in the Treasury is a source of danger. But in the consideration of any measure of national importance there are two questions which every Congressman asks himself: First, what effect will it have on the fortunes of the political party to which he belongs; second, what will be the effect on the interests of the locality which he represents.

If we examine the more important measures which have become laws by the action of the Forty-ninth Congress, we shall find that no one of them had any special significance in party politics, nor greatly affected the interests of any locality. The "Presidential Succession Bill," the "Electoral Count Bill," the "Inter-State Commerce Bill," and the "Repeal of the Tenure of Office Act," were all measures which could be considered without prejudice, and their enactment showed that the Forty-ninth Congress were not wanting in ability or patriotism. But on the other hand, the "Pauper Pension Bill," the great number of private pension bills, and the "Texas Seed Bill," besides several bills for local appropriations, all of which were vetoed by the President, showed how ready Congressmen were to sacrifice their patriotism to political fears or local interests. If a man of less firmness and integrity than President Cleveland had been at the head of affairs, the record of this Congress would have been far less creditable than it is. Does not the history of the country show that the tendency of legislation is more and more to the neglect of national interests whenever questions arise where the interests of one section of the country are opposed to those of another? Who is there besides the President to reconcile conflicting interests?

The dangers of dissolution were set at rest for awhile, but were not removed, by the successful issue of the civil war. Is it not possible to diminish the danger by electing to Congress a number of members to represent not local nor State interests, but the interests of the country at large?

Suppose that each political party, at Presidential elections, should nominate say thirty members at large, and that fifteen of each of two parties receiving the greatest number of votes should be elected for a term of years, we should have in Congress a body of men who would represent the United States, and who in times of great excitement, or of sectional controversy, would stand in the breach and ward off danger. The centre of population is moving westward at a rapid rate, new States are knocking for admission into the Union, and the time is not far distant when the population west of the Mississippi will rival that to the east. Who knows what new dangers will arise from sectional differences to threaten the safety of the Union? There should be some Representatives from the country at large to hold up the President's hands, and, amid the conflict of interests, to act for the welfare of the whole country. R. F.

BINGHAMTON, N. Y., March 17, 1887.

JEFFERSON DAVIS AND REPUDIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In answer to the inquiry of a correspondent in the last number of the *Nation*, permit me to say that there is ample authority for the statement that Jefferson Davis was a "repudiator."

In the *Washington Daily Union* for May 25, 1849, is a statement, signed by Jefferson Davis, in which he defends the right of Mississippi to repudiate the bonds in question, on the ground that they were issued in disregard of the Constitution of Mississippi. Here is a sample from the letter: "The crocodile tears which have been shed over ruined creditors are on a par with the baseless denunciations which have been heaped upon the State."

The *London Times*, July 13, 1849, in its money article, replied to Davis's letter, explaining the repudiation of the bonds from the creditors' point of view. To this reply Mr. Davis responded, August 29, 1849, in a long letter addressed to the editors of the *Mississippian*, in which he elaborated his arguments in favor of the repudiation, and denounced the article of the *London Times* in most violent terms. He further said: "With far more propriety might repudiation be charged on the *English Government*, for reduction of interest on her loans when she consolidated her debts; for the income tax which compels fund-holders to return a part of the interest they receive on their evidences of public debt, for the support of the Government which is their debtor."

In the United States Senate, also, Mr. Davis excused Mississippi for her repudiation. Also, on April 29, 1846, he moved an amendment to the Smithsonian Institution Bill, allowing Arkansas, under certain conditions, to repudiate her bonds.

A full account of Jefferson Davis's connection with repudiation, and the letters above referred to, can be found in three pamphlets by the Hon. Robert J. Walker, published in London in 1863-64.

Mr. Davis's connection with this matter has doubtless often been overstated. For example, Mr. John Stuart Mill, in an article on "The Contest in America" (*Fraser's Magazine*, 1862), said that "the President of the new Republic, Mr. Jefferson Davis, was the original inventor of repudiation. Mississippi was the first State which repudiated. Mr. Jefferson Davis was Governor of Mississippi; and the Legislature of Mississippi had passed a bill recognizing and providing for the debt, which bill Mr. Jefferson Davis vetoed." Though this may have no foundation (Mr. Davis, I believe, never having been Governor of Mississippi), the letters and statements given by Mr. Walker seem to show that Jefferson Davis can-

not be defended from the charge of being a "reputator." ALBERT T. PERKINS.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY,
CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 14, 1887.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN MASSACHUSETTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The consolation which you offer to the disappointed woman-suffragists of your State, in your number of March 17, will perhaps be increased by a few additional statistics from Massachusetts.

In 200 out of the 347 cities and towns of that State, not one woman has ever voted, though the right to do so has been granted for eight years past. In those towns where enthusiasm for the new privilege led its advocates to register and vote the first year, the number of women voters has steadily and greatly diminished with scarcely an exception. In the year 1885, as you observed, there was a decided gain in their vote in Boston, which was lost the following year. This experience of 1885 contains a moral. In that year an unusual effort was made by public and private appeal to call out the woman vote in favor of a so-called reform school-committee ticket differing from that of either political party. This special effort led to a vote of nearly 2,000 women; but when the result was declared, it appeared that a clear majority of these women voters had been sent to the polls by advocates of one of the regular party tickets, with the acknowledged purpose of offsetting the votes of the women reformers, and thus defeating the reform ticket, which they succeeded in doing.

This is a bit of history which is sure to repeat itself, and it ought greatly to console those who are grieved because they are not allowed to try the effect of women's votes upon questions of reform. It is interesting, also, to note that for the past four years every woman candidate for School Committee has been defeated, although for several years before school suffrage was granted to women they had been annually elected to that office. Thus it would appear that, by their entrance into school politics, women have driven themselves off the School Board in Boston.

BOSTON, March 20, 1887.

DIVORCE STATISTICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: All lovers of discussion and legislation founded on a thorough knowledge of the facts involved will be glad to learn that Congress has recently appropriated \$10,000 to the Bureau of Labor for the collection of statistics and other facts concerning the marriage and divorce laws of the country. The National Divorce Reform League has urged this measure upon Congress for more than three years, and the Senate has each year approved it, but it is only recently that certain members of the House have come to acknowledge its importance. In the hands of Mr. Carroll D. Wright this appropriation will undoubtedly bring a report of great value. It would seem indispensable to intelligent legislation upon our conflicting marriage and divorce laws.

SAMUEL W. DIKE.

AUBURNDALE, MASS.

CONVENTUAL PASTIMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: But a week after reading your review of Perey's memoirs of the Princesse de Ligne in the *Nation*, I discovered an account of pranks similar to hers, practised a hundred and fifty years before in the Carmelite Nunnery of Sainte Marie; and they interested me so much that I send you

a translation of the passage in question, which is cited by Livet in the preface to his *Précieux et Précieuses*, from the *Mémoires de la Duchesse de Mazarin*.

"As Mme. de Courcelles had been sent into the convent with me," writes the Duchess, "I was good-natured enough to join her in playing tricks upon the Sisters. Whereupon people made a thousand silly stories out of them to tell the King: that we put ink in the holy-water fount to daub [barbouiller] these worthy ladies; that we ran up and down through the dormitory at night with a pack of little dogs, crying out 'tayaout' [tally-ho!], and a quantity of other such things, either made up out of the whole cloth or greatly exaggerated. Under pretext of keeping us company, they watched us closely. For this office they selected the oldest of the Sisters as being most incorruptible; but by doing nothing but walk up and down all day, we very soon used them up, one after the other, until two or three were completely lamed from their determination to follow us."

These stories, although denied by those concerned in them, obtained a wide circulation at court, and appear to have been not without foundation. At any rate, until la Mère Angélique began her reforms at Port Royal in 1609, French convents were but too convenient retreats from the shadow of a great scandal; and their worldly visitors spent far more time in frivolity than in penitence, to the delight rather than the scandal of the younger Sisters.

Could our naïve little Princess have been reading Tallemant des Réaux, and got the idea of the joke from him? Or are such pranks the natural result of the ennui of a convent life?

PÉTRUS AURÉLIUS.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 15, 1887.

JOHN COTTON AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A week or two ago I took occasion to point out an absurd blunder made by Mr. W. M. Fullerton in the *Boston Sunday Record*, whereby he announced that a certain edition of Theocritus was dedicated to the Rev. John Cotton, the Puritan minister of Boston at its first settlement. I strove to point out this error in a light and even tender mood, as being perhaps the vagary of a mind overburdened with knowledge, and finding dark allusions and mystic analogies where ordinary mortals were blind. But my tenderness was evidently misplaced, since in the *Sunday Record* for March 13 Mr. Fullerton has poured forth a column or more of special pleading and irrelevant nonsense, still maintaining that he was right.

His whole argument was based upon the dedication, which he prints as follows:

"Nobilitate, Virtute, Eruditione ac summa Humanitate conspicuo Viro,
D.D. JOHANNI COTTONO,
Equiti Aurato & Barneto.
Maximo Literarum Literarumque Patrono, Domino suo benevolentissimo, ac summa observantia in perpetuum colendo. Author S.P.D."

Relying upon the fourth line, Mr. Fullerton actually asks me to explain why Sir John Cotton, Bart., of Conington, should be called a "doctor of divinity"; for, he adds, "this D.D. does not seem to be satisfactorily intelligible unless it means doctor of divinity." He also gravely states that he considers the three letters at the end of the inscription, viz., S.P.D., to be a misprint for S.T.D., the usual contraction for Sacrosanctæ Theologiæ Doctori. I should very much like to see his translation of the whole sentence with these substitutions, and would especially ask him where his verb is to be found. I would also ask him if he ever before saw such a sentence in Latin or English, where the D.D. of a doctor of divinity preceded the personal name instead of following it.

But if Mr. Fullerton had condescended to make a little search of authorities, he would have

found that the common-law Latin term for a knight is "miles," but the heralds usually use "eques," and for a knight bachelor "eques auratus." Moreover, the usual and proper prefix to the name of a knight is "dignissimus dominus," the equivalent for "most worshipful sir." Here, therefore, is just the explanation needed of the D.D. Finally, a competent authority assures me that the customary phrase at the end would be "salutem plurimam dicit."

Again, Mr. Fullerton translates the long dedication, closing with the words, "Debtor to your noble qualities, Georgius Sylvanus, P.M." He discovers another mare's nest here, and says that he thinks that P.M. stands for M.P., "member of Parliament." But a little search in the proper direction would have shown Mr. Fullerton that Georgius Sylvanus was the editor of divers classical works, and that he therein describes himself as "Pannonius Medicus," or "Hungarian Doctor," being evidently one of the wandering scholars seeking employment wherever learning could find a market.

Having thus easily and decisively cleared up the ridiculous mistakes of the critic, I will spare your readers a recital of the ludicrous errors made in his attempt to bolster up his case. They are not even ingenious, as may be inferred from his argument that we do not "certainly know that the Rev. John Cotton was not a baronet." This line of argument, of course, can be urged in regard to any man or any office. I do not certainly know that Mr. Fullerton is not the true Sir Roger Tichborne, though I feel quite confident that he does not teach Latin in any university nor occupy a position in *Heralds' College* in London.

BOSTON, St. Patrick's Day, 1887.

THE CHICAGO DEATH-RATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter on "Results of Sanitary Inspections in Chicago," in No. 1133 of the *Nation*, gives data for only six years in regard to the mortality of that city. That period is too short to enable the reader to arrive at the best conclusions. As Mr. Remis shows in his table, the death-rate in 1886 in Chicago was considerably lower than in 1881. But the value of his conclusion is neutralized somewhat by the fact that in the years 1859-62, 1865, 1867, 1875, and 1877-79, also, the death-rates were lower than in 1881. If we compare groups of years, we find that the average death-rate in Chicago for 1880-84 was 21.83, while for 1875-79 it was 18.51; showing that for the five years 1880-84 there was an actual increase, compared with the preceding five years, in the number of deaths to each 1,000 inhabitants. The following table for Chicago is of interest:

Years.	Average annual death rate from all causes per 1,000 living.
1855-59	21.12
1860-64	18.83
1865-69	22.10
1870-74	23.70
1875-79	18.51
1880-84	21.83

My authority for these figures is an article by Erwin F. Smith on the "Influence of Sewerage, etc., on Death-rate in Cities," published by the Michigan State Board of Health. This pamphlet presents a vast amount of statistics compiled by Mr. Smith himself in a most painstaking manner.

While the death-rate of Chicago is undeniably low compared with that of other cities, yet the decline of its death-rate has not been so rapid as in New York or Brooklyn. I would refer to pages 138 and 139 of the pamphlet mentioned. St. Louis, while exhibiting a more marked decline in its death-rate, has also fewer deaths per 1,000 of her population than Chicago.

The general truth seems to be that the introduction of sewers and common water supplies into cities lessens the number of deaths from typhoid fever and kindred diseases, while it has little or no influence upon diphtheria, scarlet fever, and smallpox. This, in regard to diphtheria, etc., is contrary to the usual opinion; but it is demonstrated by Mr. Smith's paper. My present purpose, however, is to show that in a long time the number of deaths in Chicago from diphtheria has steadily increased. The same can be said of Boston, Baltimore, New York, Brooklyn, and St. Louis. As diphtheria is a "wave" disease, we must, to be accurate, make comparisons of the averages of groups of years. Thus in 1860-64, in Chicago, the average number of deaths from diphtheria per 10,000 inhabitants was 8.3; in 1880-84 it was 11.9.

For success in preventing sickness and death from the dangerous communicable diseases like diphtheria, something more than good sewers and pure water and general cleanliness must be relied upon. William Squire, M.D., of London, Eng., in the *British Medical Journal* of October 30, 1886, says:

"Diseases propagated by personal infection, such as scarlet fever and smallpox, have shown no diminution under our extensive sanitary works, but require measures of isolation for their control; they are not checked by the great improvements in drainage and water supply that have proved so efficacious against the prevalence of diarrheal diseases, and especially in diminishing the amount of enteric fever. Both these points are proved in the reports of the Registrar-General."

This has a lesson for our boards of health. The prompt isolation of the patients, and the thorough disinfection of clothing, bedding, rooms, etc., are measures that should be enforced in cases of diphtheria and like diseases—Yours truly,

H. M. H.

MICHIGAN, March 18, 1887.

A CARELESS AUTHOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. Laurie's recent book on 'The Rise and Early Constitution of Universities,' in Dr. Harris's "International Education" series, is so useful and so pleasantly written that it may seem hypercritical to indulge in any strictures upon matters which neither affect the general plan nor essentially contribute to the formation or elucidation of his views. At times, however, this work bears such marks of extreme haste in its composition, and the author's use of materials is so uncritical, that the thoughtful reader is likely to conceive a prejudice, and the authority of the book to be unduly weakened.

For example, we find the following on page 35: "Bede says, according to Newman, that in his time there were monks in England who knew Latin and Greek as well as they knew their mother tongue; but, according to Mullinger, this was said by him only of Albinus, who was taught Greek by Theodore." Is it not incredible that the Professor of the Institutes and History of Education in the University of Edinburgh should pen this statement without even taking down the 'Ecclesiastical History' from his library shelf, and endeavoring to effect a reconciliation between the two writers whom he quotes? Had he done so, he would have found (Hist. Eccl. iv, 2—I quote from Moberly's edition): "Indicio est quod usque hodie supersunt de eorum discipulis, qui Latinam Græcamque linguam æque ut propriam in qua nati sunt, norunt." This is, then, the authority for Newman's statement. Again (v, 20): "Albinus discipulus ejus qui monasterio ipsius in regimine successit, in tantum studiis scripturarum institutus est, ut Græcam quidem linguam non parva ex parte, Latinam vero non minus quam Anglorum, quæ sibi naturalis est,

noverit." And thus Mullinger's assertion is substantiated. But not only is there no conflict between the views adduced: there is even a superfluity of evidence in favor of the main proposition. Thus (Hist. Eccl. v, 8): "Tobiam pro illo consecravit, virum Latinæ, Græcæ et Saxonice linguæ atque eruditione multipliciter instructum." In v, 23, Bede again says of Tobias: "Cum eruditione litterarum vel ecclesiasticarum vel generalium, ita Græcam quoque cum Latinâ didicit linguam, ut tam notas ac familiares sibi eas quam nativitatibus suæ loquelam haberet."

Prof. Laurie's orthography of proper names is sometimes peculiar. He writes now "Salerno," and now "Salernum"; always "St. Galle"; and always "Lancfranc," against the consensus of modern usage. Curiously enough, too, the "Cairo" of page 88 becomes "Babylon" on page 99, and in this he is followed by Dr. Harris (pp. xviii, xix), who must have been aware of their identity.

ALBERT S. COOK.

BERKELEY, CAL., March 7, 1887.

THE TRANSFORMATION OF SURNAMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should like to contribute one or two instances, in addition to those given by your correspondent in No. 1133 of the *Nation*, illustrative of the facility with which the surnames of foreigners—especially those of French origin—are transformed after settlement in rural New England.

Something like a quarter of a century ago two brothers, John and Louis Le Ware, from Canada, became residents of this town. Both have since raised large families here. John and his descendants have kept their original name (now written Leware). The family name of the other brother was long since transformed to *Lovell*, by which he and his posterity of two generations are so universally known, both in speech and writing, that the former name, now obsolete and forgotten, would not be recognized.

Fifteen years ago, perhaps, another Canadian Frenchman, Joseph Simoneau, settled here. This name was soon Anglicized into *Simonds*, by which the family are now almost universally known, although it is still occasionally written Simoneau. Before a generation has passed, however, the latter name will doubtless be wholly disused and forgotten.

Such instances as the above are curious illustrations of the habit of domination of the Anglo-Saxon mind, the world over, when brought into contact with other races, in moulding language, laws, manners, etc., into conformity to itself.

M. E. G.

NORWICH, VT., March 19, 1887.

Notes.

THE completion, by Mr. Henry C. Lea, of the History of the Inquisition of the Middle Ages, to which he has closely devoted himself for many years, is a very gratifying event, both in the interest of American scholarship and as a sign of the author's restoration to health. Mr. Lea's originality of research and exposition is of a kind that leaves little scope to the reviewer. The date of publication is not yet determined.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert announce 'A Summer in England with Henry Ward Beecher,' by Maj. J. B. Pond, his travelling companion. There will be a photographic portrait frontispiece.

Thomas Whittaker will issue Canon C. A. Row's 'Future Retribution viewed in the Light of Reason and Revelation,' and the Rev. E. Hatch's 'Early History of Christian Institutions.'

Wm. S. Gottsberger will publish on March 20

'The Bride of the Nile,' a romance by Georg Ebers, from the German by Clara Bell, in two volumes.

James Pott & Co. have undertaken the sole agency for Bagster's Bibles in this country.

We have lately had from Geo. Routledge & Sons a sumptuous edition of 'Les Misérables' in English. Mr. W. R. Jenkins now proposes to make a new edition of the original French, manufactured wholly in this city in five duodecimo volumes. Mr. Jenkins has also in press 'La Lingua Italiana,' by Prof. T. E. Comba—a textbook in the "Natural Method"; 'Livres des Enfants,' a French primer, by Paul Bercy; and 'Contes tirés de Molière,' by Prof. Alfred M. Cotte, who has had Lamb's 'Tales from Shakspeare' in mind as a model.

The American Economic Association announces 'The Relation of the State to Industrial Action,' by Prof. Henry C. Adams, professor of political economy in Cornell University and the University of Michigan, to be issued March 25.

Mr. Andrew Lang is editing the old English translation of 'Cupid and Psyche' (1566), to which he will prefix a paper on the transmigrations and transformations of the myth.

It is always well to know who did the historic deed which men incline to celebrate—for instance, who abolished slavery in the United States. Some say the Rev. George Bourne, because he first formulated immediate and unconditional emancipation. Some say Benjamin Lundy, because he first dropped everything else in order to labor for emancipation. Some think Garrison had a hand in it because he first organized the anti-slavery sentiment of the country on the basis of immediatism. Others think the genuine emancipator was the political abolitionist, say J. G. Birney and the Liberty party; or the Republican party, first to elect an anti-slavery Presidential candidate. John Brown paved the way for this success, say others still, and made a war for freedom inevitable. Lincoln, finally, did actually sign and utter the edict of emancipation. Here is choice enough, without mention of Mrs. Stowe and 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' But it is the object of a small pamphlet, 'The New-England Emigrant Aid Company, and its influence, through the Kansas contest, upon national history' (Worcester, Mass.), to call attention to the claims of its author (as the founder of the Company) to have been the first to knock the bottom out of the "peculiar institution." The lectures here reproduced were given before the Worcester Society of Antiquity, and are only the prelude to a larger work of the same purport. In it Mr. Thayer will doubtless settle the question of the interference of his patent right of killing slavery, by free-labor colonizing cordons, with that of Benjamin Lundy a quarter of a century earlier.

Two years ago Mr. Theo. L. DeVinne read a paper before the Grolier Club on 'Historic Printing Types'; and now two hundred copies of this lecture have just been printed for the Grolier Club at the author's own press. It is a delight to see a book whose mechanical execution is of so high an order, and whose literary quality is quite worthy of its beautiful setting. Mr. De Vinne traces the modifications of the movable letter from John Fust and Peter Schoeffer to the latest (and most ugly) novelties of the type-founders of to-day. He has adorned his broad and beautiful pages with an abundance of facsimiles and reproductions. Nowhere else can so much information on the subject be found collected together, but there is, nevertheless, a hope that Mr. De Vinne will expand his treatment in a larger work procurable (no doubt) by the public at large.

Uniform with Mr. DeVinne's book, the Grolier Club has also issued Mr. Robert Hoe's lecture on

'Book-Binding as a Fine Art,' illustrated by many examples from his own collection, reproduced by the Bierstadt process. We may note a strange slip on p. 7, where Mr. Hoe speaks of the MM. Marius Michel as "a Frenchman."

A new volume of vacation travels of the light, entertaining sort which seems to be an increasingly popular form of literature, is issued by Roberts Brothers, Boston, under the title 'Cathedral Days,' by Anna Bowman Dodd. It narrates the incidents of a driving tour through southern England. The writer takes a special interest in architecture, and gives a fuller account of the cathedrals seen than of anything else; but the text is by no means confined to such subjects—the landscape, the inns, the rustics, the fairs, and the country seats all receiving their share of attention. The journey was made in a "trap" with only one companion, and a good deal of its six weeks' pleasure has found its way into these pages.

The 'Satchel Guide to Europe' of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. reaches this year a sixteenth edition, with very slight and immaterial changes in its last year's contents.

Readers of *Outing*, our open-air sporting contemporary of excellent repute, will recognize familiar matter in 'Yachts and Yachting' (Cassell & Co.)—Capt. R. F. Coffin's history of American yachting, in six chapters to 1885; the *Mayflower-Galatea* races of 1886, by Charles E. Clay; American steam yachting, by Edward S. Jaffray; and British yachting, by C. J. C. McAlister. This record, not more comprehensive than convenient for reference, is fully illustrated, mostly by outline sketches by F. S. Cozzens and others.

Mr. Griswold's 'Annual Index to Periodicals [monthly or quarterly]' is now published (Bangor, Me.: Q. P. Index). It is divided into two parts, authors and subjects, reference to and from which is effected with characteristic ingenuity; but the liability to error is enormously increased by the use of such high numerals as 40,000 and its sequence, and Mr. Griswold may ultimately be driven to consider whether he is not paying too dearly for condensation.

Mr. Spofford's 'American Almanac for 1887' (Am. News Co.) rounds out its first decade. It remains the most varied and useful work of the kind in this country in the realm of statistical, financial, and political information.

Mr. T. W. Higginson has reprinted two short articles from the *Atlantic* and *Harper's* in a little Handbook, 'Hints on Writing and Speech Making' (Boston: Lee & Shepard), which is sure to find young readers in plenty, to whom its slight but practical suggestions will be welcome and stimulating.

From Lee & Shepard we have likewise a new edition of Whately's 'English Synonyms Discriminated,' or perhaps we should say a new issue.

A. C. Armstrong & Son put their imprint on a Glasgow edition of Cowper's translations of Mme. de la Mothe Guyon's religious poems, prettily manufactured without and within.

The third and final volume of the 'History of Woman Suffrage' (Rochester: Susan B. Anthony), covering the period from 1876 to 1885, has just been issued. Like its predecessors, it is abundantly supplied with steel portraits of the female advocates of the cause, and it also contains an index to the entire work.

We have the customary supply of Easter leaflets and booklets, each in its proper envelope: from D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, 'Easter Lilies' and 'Sunshine'; from A. D. F. Randolph & Co., the more elaborate 'Easter Lilies,' 'Heartsease,' 'Garden Graith, or Talks among My Flowers,' by Sarah F. Smiley, and 'In Blossom Time: Songs and Ballads of the Spring.' The last two are genuine books, very tastefully attired.

The accomplished translator of Mommsen's 'Roman History,' the Rev. W. P. Dickson, has given us the much desired translation of his fifth volume, and it has been republished by Charles Scribner's Sons. As the original three volumes are made into four in the translation, so the thick fifth volume is divided in two, and the difficulty of numbering them—in the uncertainty as to the bulk of the unpublished fourth volume—has been solved by publishing them with an independent title, 'The Provinces of the Roman Empire,' in two volumes. The maps are reproduced directly from the original, with German names and descriptions. Translation is one of the most difficult forms of composition, and Mr. Dickson is certainly very skilful in it. Occasionally, however, one meets with an expression which is inexact or obscure. For example, take the rendering of a sentence which is perfectly intelligible in the original, but which here (vol. i, p. 21) is far from being elegant or perspicuous—that the region submitted "probably in the form of a dependent principality emerging in the first instance, but of its prince are long giving place to the imperial procurator, from whom, for that matter, he did not essentially differ."

The extraordinary vogue of Mr. Rider Haggard's 'She' has already invited parody in England, and a burlesque, called 'He,' has appeared. This is chiefly a satire on the attacks on the so-called "literary log-rollers." It is said to be by the author of 'Much Darker Days' (i. e., Mr. Andrew Lang) in collaboration with another humorist (probably Mr. "F. Anstey").

A well-conceived and well-executed souvenir series of sketches of Westminster Abbey comes to us from S. Drewett, London (1 Northumberland Avenue, Trafalgar Square, W. C.). The artist, Mr. Alfred Dawson, here contributes six water-color drawings, reproduced, as we judge, by photogravure, with the general effect of etchings and almost of photographs. A very true sense of the picturesque has determined his choice of subjects, which include three exterior views of the Abbey, the interior of the nave, the Poets' Corner, and the doorway of the chapel dedicated to St. Erasmus. Other sketches are to follow. Their scale is about three by four-and-a-half inches. Miss Bradley, daughter of the Dean of Westminster, furnishes a brief descriptive text.

The *Studio* for March fulfils its promise to present its subscribers with an etching, made expressly for that journal by Mr. Sidney L. Smith, after a pastel portrait of the boy John Quincy Adams, at the age of sixteen. This portrait was drawn by one Schmidt at the Hague, and his work is praised by the editor of the *Studio* for great delicacy and refinement. To have preserved this pleasing memorial of one who, if not to be called the greatest of American Presidents, was certainly the best equipped of all the line for such an office, is a service to his countrymen. The boy's expression is roguish, and is heightened by his costume, which is that of a "little man" of the period.

M. Charles Yriarte continues his account of the treasures of Chantilly in *L'Art* for February 15 (Macmillan). There are numerous illustrations after Poussin, Watteau, etc., including Mignard's portrait of Molière. The Princess Demidoff's gallery furnishes a fine open-air landscape ("On the Meuse") by J. Wynants, which has been etched full-page by G. Greux.

The Supplement to the *Nouvelle Revue* of February 15 contains the beginning of what promises to be an extremely charming story by Dostoyevsky, 'Les nuits blanches.' The nights at that period of the summer when the sun does not set till after nine o'clock, and rises about one in the morning, have received this name in St. Peters-

burg. The title seems significant, not only for the material setting of the story, but for the moral condition of the two actors. So far, it is almost gay and happy, while showing all the strange power of mental and moral revelation to which the author has accustomed us.

Our readers have often heard from us concerning the social-reform movement of M. Le Play which is exercising so salutary an influence in France. Its organ, *La Réforme Sociale*, a fortnightly journal, contains, in its issue for January 1, an article by M. Claudio Jannet, entitled "L'ancien régime en Amérique"—a study of the institutions of the early settlers, based principally upon the publications of the Johns Hopkins University. The writer starts from the assertion of De Tocqueville that the American colonies had a new conception of society and a new type of institutions, and undertakes to show that, on the other hand, the institutions of these colonists were the direct outgrowth of those of the mother country—a view familiar enough to us at the present day, but perhaps a novel one to Frenchmen. Probably nothing is so hard for a Frenchman (or a European in general, for the matter of that) to understand as that English and American liberties are founded upon law and precedent, and not upon vague generalizations. The extravagances and aberrations which the writer cites at the beginning of his article, as accompanying the Protestant Reformation, can be easily matched in Catholic countries. It is not any form of belief, but the existence of a healthy conservatism in the national temper, and a habit of self reliance, that protect against such extravagances. It is noteworthy that the illustrations of the *ancien régime* described in this article are mainly taken from Protestant colonies.

The *Revue Scientifique* for March 5 contains an interesting account of the valley of the Obi, by M. Ch. Rabot, founded on the work of the Italian traveller, Stephen Sommier, 'Un Estate in Siberia.' From this it appears that the northern forest limit is receding in Asia as in Europe. According to the author's theory this is due, not to the increase of cold or the violence of winds, but to the saturation of the soil. He believes that since the glacial age there have been successive periods of dryness and humidity, and that the forests which have grown in the one are succeeded by mosses in the other. In support of this view he points out the fact that trees are still to be found in places where there is drainage. Descriptions are given of the summer and winter dwellings of the Ostiaks and Samoyeds, who constitute the principal part of the scanty population, their dress, religion, and marriage customs. The Ostiaks have a special cult for the dead, making an image of one who has died, which they treat in every respect as if it were a living person. They are also believers in spirits, and have mediums whom they always consult before any transaction of importance.

The paper of most general interest in the last number of *Petermann's Mittheilungen* is upon the journey of Messrs. Capello and Ivens across Africa. They left the west coast in April, 1884, having for their main objects the discovery of a trade route to connect the Portuguese possessions on the Atlantic with those on the Indian Ocean, and the determining of the watershed between the Congo and the Zambesi. In neither of these do they appear to have been successful. On reaching the latter river in longitude 24° they proceeded in a northeasterly direction, hoping to gain the east coast by the way of Lake Tanganyika. Disappointed in this by the hostility of the natives, they were obliged to return to the Zambesi, which they followed to the coast. Although little of the territory traversed was new, the numerous observations taken, the careful mapping of their route, and the large collections

made of the fauna, flora, and geology of the interior have given the expedition a high scientific value. An admirable map accompanies the paper. Prof. Fischer completes his account of the changes in the North-African coast, and Prof. Kunze contributes a paper, chiefly tables of observations, on the barometric hypsometry of South America.

By royal decree of Feb. 20, a new and complete edition of the works of Galileo will be published under the auspices of the Italian Minister of Public Instruction, in twenty quarto volumes of about 500 pages each. The task will consume ten years.

We read in the *Courrier de l'Art* that Fanny Zampini Salazaro, daughter of Demetrio Salazaro, the historian of the monuments of southern Italy, has just started *La Rossegna degl' interessi femminili*, whose mission will be to promote not political, but industrial and artistic emancipation and expansion for women. She has the cordial approval of Prof. R. Bonghi.

Recently announced in Italy are an enlarged edition, revised with the aid of fresh documents, of Prof. Villari's 'Savonarola'; the fifteenth volume of Mazzini's writings, with Saffi's invaluable preface; a new volume of poems by Carducci.

A "bloody shirt" campaign document of the late German elections is before us, and shows how the war string was pulled. A folding sheet has on one of the inner pages a map of the Franco-German frontier, with great red squares dotted over the French territory, marked "120,000 men," as at Paris, or 17,500, as at Belfort, or 18,250 at Nancy, etc.—showing, in fact, the disposition of French forces and strongholds with reference to a possible invasion of Germany. On the opposite page are odious tabulated and graphic comparisons of the military strength in peace and war of the two countries, and much other information creating a belief in the hostile intentions of the French. This compilation is professedly made from the official sources enumerated by Maj. E. von Tröltzsch, of the Württemberg army, and is modestly published "im Auftrag der Deutschen Partei." There is no other allusion to the pending elections.

—The April *Atlantic* opens in a novel way with the familiar features of Dr. Holmes, whose portrait is fitly the first to appear in the magazine to which he gave the name at its christening, and in whose fortunes he is fond of manifesting a paternal interest. He continues in this number the diary of his English visit, in which there is nothing more pleasing to the reader than the evident pleasure he himself took in it; though the cuckoo's note in Windsor Forest is a kind of prose poem. The poet of this month, however, is Whittier, whose verses on the conversion of the Indian chief Rain-in-the-Face to the arts of peace breathe that Christian gratulation and hope which entitle him to be called our sacred poet as no one besides is. An interesting paper of Lincoln reminiscence is given by "Edmund Kirke," who in the summer of 1864 published in this magazine an account of an interview with Jefferson Davis, to show that peace was impossible except with disunion. The present article narrates the events that led up to that interview—the hallucination of Col. Jaquess that Providence had chosen him to be a mediator through the Southern Methodist Church, Lincoln's relation to the affair, and subsequently his sending the writer unofficially with Jaquess to sound Davis, for the purpose of showing the North that reunion was not then feasible, as the peace advocates asserted. Lincoln dictated conditions of peace which the writer took down from his lips, among which were an indemnity of five hundred millions for the slaves, amnesty, and immediate representa-

tion in the Government on the basis of the voting population. The affair will not bear much emphasis, since it never came into a practical or serious shape. Nothing is more striking in it than the contrast between the large space it filled in the eyes of the actors and the small arc it really occupied in Lincoln's commanding view of the situation. At every step he was in a position to disown it or to avail himself of it, and in fact made use of it to "draw" the enemy for political effect on Northern opinion. As an episode it illustrates his character, but as history it contains only conjectures of events in the settlement of which other methods would have been required, and great forces would have worked with profound modification. A good many people besides McClellan were engaged in personally "saving the country" in those days, and Lincoln gave them every chance.

—The *Harvard Monthly* for March has a letter from Mr. Hamerton reviewing some exceptions taken by Col. Higginson, in an earlier number, to the former's remarks in the *Atlantic*, that literary celebrity is powerful only over a few, and that he would as willingly be overshadowed by an English lord as by an American millionaire. Col. Higginson holds that in this democratic country literary celebrity is powerful over the many, and that the author is not at a social disadvantage with the millionaire. Mr. Hamerton mildly replies that "the form of government has nothing to do with the reading habit," and cites France, as a democracy, to offset the United States, and Italy, as a monarchy, to balance England and Germany, etc. He apparently still believes that here, as in Europe, an author obtains an audience by a process of natural selection from all possible readers, and this audience, according to his individual observation, is constituted of "a few" in the cases of Victor Hugo, Thackeray, Ruskin, and Arnold; they were known, but not read in proportion to their fame. As to the relative estimation of literary celebrity and such visible things as wealth and rank, he clearly remains in an unbelieving state, in spite of Col. Higginson's report. The discussion is not very fruitful. Col. Higginson relies for his main point on the vast circulation of journals and magazines; but the portion of their contents which Mr. Hamerton would regard as literature is very small, and it is plain from his instances that Col. Higginson confers the degree of "literary celebrity" with no academical hand. One thing the latter points out with marked emphasis, in contradiction to the conditions in England—namely, that literary men here count for nothing in the universities; but he has Harvard especially in mind.

—In the February number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Paris: Boussod, Valadon et Cie.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) the article to which most readers will turn with the greatest expectation is the one by M. Caro: "Les dernières années de George Sand, d'après sa correspondance." It is not surprising that, for readers of the correspondence itself, M. Caro should scarcely have fulfilled the anticipations to which his own name, as well as his subject, has given rise; still, his long article is interesting even to those to whom the whole is familiar ground. He sketches with a few light strokes the first George Sand, as he calls her, the legendary George Sand of the Quartier Latin, the untiring wanderer over all the highways of Europe, especially those of Bohemia, accentuating the picture by a summary of Alfred de Musset's 'Merle blanc'; but he depicts with care the second George Sand, the George Sand of the peaceful later years at Nohant, as she appears in her correspondence with the authors who were her friends. M. Caro has not attempted to give any idea of these letters, not even of those to Flau-

bert, upon which he dwells the longest; but, within the narrow limits of the space at his disposal, he does show something of her methods of work and of her conceptions of literary art, and especially of her sympathetic and helpful goodness of heart, and the maternal charm of her relations with all who approached her, which makes her, even for those who know her only through her writings, one of the most gratefully and tenderly loved of authors. Among the illustrations is a small reproduction of Calamatta's portrait of 1836, and an excellent full-page one of Couture's well-known picture of 1850, thus showing M. Caro's first and second George Sand. An other noticeable article, "Opera buffa, opera seria," by M. Armand de Pontmartin, reads like a chapter from some future volume of 'Mes Mémoires,' of which the first, 'Enfance et Jeunesse' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof), was published last year. In this paper he recalls the winter, or rather the spring, of 1830, the last of the Restoration, the interval between the great theatrical battles of the Classics and Romantics over 'Hernani,' and the Revolution of July. The prettiest illustrations in the number are the picturesque Nuremberg views in the continued story of Mme. Thérèse Bentzon, 'À la Sirène.'

—The eighth edition of W. W. Story's 'Roba di Roma,' in two neat volumes (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), describes a Rome that has passed away under his own eyes. The revision to which it has been subjected consists of the recurring foot-note that "all this is changed now," the matter having been originally written more than a quarter of a century ago; but this book remains historically one of the very best pictures of both the scenes and the sentiment of Roman life. The author is inclined to lament the ruin of the picturesque and the incursion of the last barbarians, but sensibly concedes that the reform is usually for the good of the nation and the people. The *pifferari* have vanished and ballad-singers are rare; the beggars are restricted, the cabmen have a tariff, the slaughtering of cattle is banished without the walls; the Villas Ludovisi, Massimo, and Negrone are gone, and the railway station and the Via Nazionale have come. The Colonna Gardens are disappearing to make way for "blocks," and now the Villa Borghese, it is threatened, must follow these. The Piazza Navona is no longer flooded for its carnival; the Ghetto submits to sanitary inspection beyond the annual visit of Father Tiber; the great processions, and illuminations, and benedictions of St. Peter suffer eclipse, but the theatres rejoice in gas; costume goes out and fashion arrives; and for a good deal of this Mr. Story expresses sympathetic regret. But read his long chapter on the Ghetto, and one rejoices that Christian iniquity is now ancient, too; and so of many other things. The change in the conduct of funerals and the care of the dead is a great gain in itself, to say nothing of the living. Mr. Story observes that suicide has come in with liberty, and also cruelty to animals, though he ascribes this last to the presence of the carters and other laborers gathered there because of the building operations, and also to bad customs remediable by law. But, all told, one execrates the papal rule and blesses Italy with a good conscience, and bids New Rome god-speed, villas or no villas. Mr. Story's book is not confined to Rome, but makes little excursions into the country, or even as far as to Siena. The charm of the Campagna was never more feelingly described, and the nature of the Italians never more amiably and benevolently illustrated. In fact, Mr. Story loves them so much that he can never repress a sneer at the French, English, and Americans to their advantage. On page 145 we observe an account of Iphigenia's dream which indicates that the author had not recently read the play in

Euripides; and, on page 168, sentimental mention of a visit of Shelley to Severn, which is mythical.

— Strange as it may seem, there have never been but two editions of Pascal's complete works, although his 'Provinciales' and his 'Pensées' have been reprinted almost a countless number of times. Indeed, if the matter were pressed closely, the two editions would resolve themselves into one work, for that of 1819 is little more than a reproduction of the one of 1779. A couple of very cheap reprints which purport to reproduce these do not deserve to be considered. But now the publishing house of Hachette has at last begun, in the collection known as "Les Grands Écrivains," an edition of Pascal which promises to be more complete than any hitherto issued. The editor, M. Prosper Faugère, is a veteran in Pascal literature. As early as 1844 he gave an edition of the 'Pensées,' which was a revelation as to what the original text really was. And now he returns to what was "one of the first admirations" of his youth. The first volume of his 'Blaise Pascal' (Paris: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof), just published, contains only the first twelve "Provinciales," which he reproduces, not from any previous edition, but from a manuscript in his own possession, which he surmises to have been made about the year 1659, three years after the publication of the first letter. In this manuscript M. Faugère finds readings and minute changes in which he thinks he sees the correcting hand of Pascal. He therefore chooses it for his text, giving at the bottom of the page all the different readings of other editions. As to other notes, the new editor is very sparing in his information, and in this respect the present edition of Pascal will be very unlike those of the other great writers in the same collection. Indeed, except for the general appearance of the volume, it does not seem to be made on the same plan as the excellent editions of Saint Simon, Corneille, Mme. de Sévigné. Yet where can a reader be more in need of appropriate notes than in reading the 'Provinciales,' full as they are of allusions to disputes about what were burning questions in 1656, and now are as things of a remote antiquity?

— M. Ernest Havet, whose edition of Pascal's 'Pensées' holds so high a rank, has now published 'Les Provinciales' (Paris: Delagrave; Boston: Schoenhof). He has chosen for his text the primitive version of the Letters, as they were published, one by one, beginning in January, 1656. His reason for not following the example of other editors, who have reproduced the last edition, corrected and revised by Pascal himself, is, that the 'Lettres Provinciales,' owing to their polemical and aggressive character, are to be considered in the same light as newspaper articles. The corrections made when they were collected into a volume were made by the author often to satisfy others rather than himself, so that the present editor may well say: "It was rather Port-Royal than Pascal that published these letters." M. Havet has not thought it well to reproduce the orthography, and he has, in every case, given the readings of subsequent editions at the foot of the page. The long introduction of eighty-nine pages gives all the information necessary for a full understanding of the Letters, each of which is in turn followed by several pages of *remarques*, on the language as well as on the subject matter. M. Havet is no friend of the Jesuits, as may be seen whenever he has occasion to speak of the order; nor is his edition wholly favorable to the Port-Royal side of the questions discussed. The doctrines of grace and predestination find little favor in his sight, and this he shows, even in the school edition he has prepared of Letters 1, 4, 13, 14 (Paris: Delagrave; Boston: Schoenhof). In

these the comments are such that perhaps the Municipal Council of Paris itself might accept them. We have, therefore, in M. Havet's edition of the 'Provinciales' an extended historical and literary commentary; the first published in France which is prompted neither by the Jansenists nor by the Jesuits.

— 'Academica Juventus: Die deutschen Studenten nach Sprache und Sitte, lexicographisch, histo- und anthropologisch dargestellt von Herodotus junior aus Halikarnass' (Celle and Leipzig: August Schulze, 1887) is written throughout in a very facetious vein, which at times becomes somewhat tiring. But those uninitiated in the mysteries of German student-life will find in its pages much to amuse and instruct them. The booklet will also supplement the knowledge of many Englishmen and Americans, who, while studying in Germany, did not assiduously attend the *Kneipe*, or otherwise come into very close contact with the students. In the Preface the author speaks of his work as a contribution to the "natural history" of the German student, to remind alumni of joyous days long past, and to serve as a guide to the young student about to enter the unknown *civitas academica*. The information contained in the book is arranged alphabetically. Here are a few of the many words and customs that are explained: Angströhre, Belegbogen, Blume, Brüderschaft, Burschenschaft, Collegienbuch, Commers, Famos, Bemoestes Haupt, Altes Haus, Immatrikulieren, Katzenjammer, Kneipe, Landmannschaft, Mensur, Philster, Prosit, Salamander. Subjoined are a few definitions that are doubtless new to many Americans: a broom (*Besen*) is a servant-girl or waitress; to call a person learned (*Gelehrter*) is, according to the canons of beer-etiquette, an insult, which must be duly revenged; a coat is said to "learn Hebrew" when it is pawned; *holzen* means to beat; a student "lies in the basket" when he is confined to his room on account of a duel on the "Mensur"; "to ox" (*ochsen, büffeln*) is to study hard; old sack (*alter Sack*) = old friend, 'old fellow'; moss (*Moos*) is a paternal remittance of money; sausage ("Es ist mir Wurst") = indifferent. If "Herodotus junior" had treated the subject more seriously, and devoted more attention to student customs, he would have added very much to the value of his book.

MAUDSLEY ON THE SUPERNATURAL.

Natural Causes and Supernatural Seemings. By Henry Maudsley, M.D., LL.D. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1886. 8vo, pp. viii, 368.

DR. MAUDSLEY, after his early successes, undertook years since the rôle of a sort of Polonius among psychologists. His latest works show that he is still advancing in a knowledge of his part. Insufferably long sermons, full of rambling and disordered references to Saint Theresa, to the insane, to the confessions of St. Augustine, to the fallacy of human testimony, to the shortness of human life, to the Hindu devotees, to cerebral physiology, to poetry, to metaphysics, to altruism, and to the hallucinations of Swedenborg—such, of late years, are Dr. Maudsley's contributions to science. The present volume is a rather extreme case of this abuse of the privileges of a distinguished position. Because Dr. Maudsley was, not so very long ago, a leading expositor of modern psychology, why must he now deem himself called upon to harangue the world in this dull and useless fashion about the evils of superstition, the terrors of the dark ages, and the sinfulness of mankind? When we want to be scolded, are there not old-fashioned preachers enough in existence to do it for us, if we will

but go to their churches? Must a reputed leader of thought waste his time in this fashion? And if he persists in doing so, must we not ere long begin to doubt the soundness of his reputation itself?

In the seventeenth century, Dr. Maudsley's train of thought, as we find it expressed in this book, would indeed have been more useful. His refutation of witchcraft would have been in place, his triumphant exposure of the doctrine of signatures might have done good, his views about general philosophy would have been worthy of even an enlightened thinker of the time, and the tone of this treatise would thus have been more in harmony with some of the most valuable tendencies of the century. Addressing as he does this age, Dr. Maudsley has to be judged not by his matter but by his style, for he says nothing that is now in the least needed by those who are capable of understanding him. His style in this volume, however, is a hopeless mixture of the commonplace and the confused. It is at times almost incoherent. It is never worthy of his former fame.

The present volume may indeed have been suggested by the existence and the baleful influence of the English Society for Psychical Research. That organization has undoubtedly made more than one bad blunder in the conduct of its work. Intelligent and severe criticism it certainly ought to receive. But Dr. Maudsley here offers nothing that can be called either intelligent, or, for sensible readers, severe, criticism of any present and genuine investigations into anything by anybody, unless the commonplaces of his first two chapters, wherein the simplest of the well known fallacies of induction are diffusely and solemnly set forth and blamed, can be called such criticism. In all save these first chapters, he tells us how the human imagination must be kept within bounds, how persons of nervous temperament are subject to hallucinations, how such hallucinations have in the past influenced religions, how all religious ecstasy is more or less abnormal, and how, in general, supposed supernatural interference in human affairs must be traced to some form of human delusion. All this, mingled with reflections as aforesaid, makes up Dr. Maudsley's argument. Superstition is, he assures us, pathological in its origin and highly injurious in its individual and social consequences. Hence we should actually go so far as to eschew superstition. We should even believe that we "come into being by natural laws, and by no other laws." We "must be convinced of the futility of pouring forth lamentations and supplications to invisible powers"; and after this there must occur an "evolution of the living sentiment of human solidarity," whereby the world will be saved and religion replaced. Beyond this rather familiar and ancient diet, the reader of Dr. Maudsley's book will find in it no mental food worth talking about.

To a writer of Dr. Maudsley's position, however, is of course due a report of the contents of his book, although we can give no space to detailed discussion. After a summary "Statement of the Argument," the author goes on, in Part I (pp. 7-145), to discuss the "fallacies incident to the natural operations of the mind." These are, in chapters i and ii, the regular fallacies of induction, restated and illustrated; while, in chapter iii, the activity of the imagination is similarly treated. The result of the argument, so far, is to show that a false belief in supernatural agencies can spring up through these relatively normal fallacies. In Part 2, "Unsound Mental Action," as a source of belief in the supernatural, is discussed in five chapters (pp. 149-261). Part 3 is devoted to the explanation and demolition of "The Attainment of Supernatural Knowledge by Divine Illumination," and contains seven

chapters. The normal causes of error, and the much more potent abnormal sources of human delusion, having now been discussed, the author proceeds (p. 354, *sq.*) to summarize his results. "Malobservation and misinterpretation of nature" are the sources of all belief in the supernatural; and supernatural phenomena "have not ever been, nor are ever now, events of the external world, but have always been, and are, fables of the imagination." These are Dr. Maudsley's highly novel conclusions.

One curious problem, however, as we feel impelled to add, remains in this, as in Dr. Maudsley's previous books, wholly unsettled; and that problem concerns the author's personal views about the worth of life. If in the midst of these sermons of Dr. Maudsley's we were not always meeting with lamentations concerning human misery, and even with grave suggestions that the life of man is once for all a vain show, we should never think of vexing ourselves with Dr. Maudsley's opinions upon so metaphysical a topic. But the frequent occurrence of certain remarks in our author's writings has aroused in us a certain languid curiosity such as we cannot manage to feel concerning anything else that Dr. Maudsley of late years has chosen to mention. In his 'Body and Will' we seem to remember a passage where he declares pessimism to be a pathological phenomenon, a symptom of initial mental decay. We also seem to remember another passage where he confessed that, on the whole, he was a pessimist himself. The combination of these passages, as we remember them, has always produced in us a bewildered impression; and we have looked with interest to the present discussion for more light. We fail to get it. Dr. Maudsley sometimes hopes much of "human solidarity," and at such moments thinks that this "solidarity" will make us a very happy folk indeed some day, if it only becomes the triumphant principle of human nature. But, in other passages, he appears once for all to despair of us, now and hereafter. There seem to be, he tells us (p. 240), three classes of persons taking "leading parts in the great drama of human life." These are the "dupes," the "dupers," and the "duped dupers." He defines all three classes at some length. The "dupes," namely, believe "the great drama of human life" to possess "transcendent importance"; they "take it in tragical earnest," and are "ready to sacrifice strength and wealth and even life in its service." That, in fact, is what makes them dupes. The "dupers" are the actors and hypocrites of the world; the "duped dupers" are the people who, like certain reformers, combine selfishness with earnestness, and so become a kind of sincere impostors. These, then, are the typical men of this planet. As for the value of life under such circumstances, Dr. Maudsley admits (p. 143) that, "to the race, as to the individual, wisdom cannot fail to bring disillusion, and increase of knowledge to be increase of sorrow." He especially associates this "increase of sorrow" with the decline of supernaturalism. And, on page 145, he admits that good and heroic deeds, viewed from a standpoint outside the life of man, "may not be of any more moment than the devoted zeal and self-sacrifice of a toiling ant in the busy service of its colony." In short, to judge from all these passages, and others as well, Dr. Maudsley is an out-and-out pessimist.

Yet, on p. 302, we hear of an "enthusiastic optimist" who believes that "incalculable gains" and that "a vast height of power and happiness" await mankind whenever we shall have gotten rid of all forms of superstition. This person is even called, on p. 363, a "scientific optimist," and Dr. Maudsley seems for the instant to sympathize strongly with his glowing hopes. These are of a kind often referred to elsewhere by Dr.

Maudsley; but he leaves all such hopes withered at last when he says, in the last sentence of his book, that whatever man is destined to become, we can hardly help feeling the conviction that it were something better for man "not to be, at the cost of what he has been, is still, and must continue to be in the long and painful process" of reaching the highest development. We see, then, how deeply Dr. Maudsley suffers from that "conviction of the utter vanities of all things under the sun," which, in 'Body and Mind,' he classes among the "forewarning intimations of inevitable decline and death," and distinctly calls a "malady of self-consciousness." Nay, this conviction he even names, in the cited passage, together with "thin and shrieking sentimentalities" and "metaphysical disquisitions," as among the prominent ills of modern life. But still, after all, we will not lose hope for Dr. Maudsley. May he quickly recover from all "maladies of self-consciousness," and long escape any more "forewarning intimations." But may he also never again write such a book as this one on the "Supernatural."

THE STORY OF KASPAR HAUSER.

Kaspar Hauser: Eine neugeschichtliche Legende. Von Antonius von der Linde. 2 vols. Wiesbaden. 1887.

EVERY one knows the story of Kaspar Hauser; all have been moved to pity at the tale of his confinement in a small dark cell without room to walk or stand—sitting there day and night from early infancy until his seventeenth year; shut off from all the world except the monster who gave him his daily bread, and the companionship that two wooden horses could afford him. Suddenly taken from this living death, he is deserted in the streets of Nuremberg with a letter to a cavalry captain in his hand. Thrown into prison as a helpless wayfarer, he becomes an object of curiosity, and, through the publication of his wonderful story by the Burgomaster, of hero-worship. Thousands travelled to see the "child of Nuremberg." Princes and noblemen paid him tribute. It became the fashion for ladies to dote on him. Scientists studied him as the embodiment of nature's most hidden secrets. Educators hailed him as the realization of Rousseau's *Émile*. Philanthropists made him the object of their special care. His wonderful story was translated into all civilized languages, and it was proposed to adopt him as the child of Europe. And yet all this honor, this attention, this pity, and this study was worse than misplaced—it was ridiculous. The history of popular delusions has been enriched in the nineteenth century by a deception no less thorough than the South Sea Bubble or the divine claims of the mesmeric fluid. The story of Kaspar Hauser is a myth. How did the myth arise? To answer this question Herr von der Linde has written two large volumes—on the whole, much too honorable a tombstone for Kaspar Hauser.

The facts of the case are brief and direct. They are recorded in the official protocol of the district courts on the few days following the lad's appearance in Nuremberg (May 26, 1828) before the "child of nature" myth was invented. This testimony is duly attested and registered; not a single authentic fact was ever added to it. From here on, the story rests only upon Kaspar's own narrations, suggested to him by the stupid credulity of his questioners and by the love of notoriety. From the official records we learn that Kaspar spoke with strong dialectical peculiarities, walked nearly a mile through the city, wrote his name, recited the Lord's Prayer, said that he had gone to school, showed his fondness for horses; and that by means of the letter which he presented on his appearance in Nuremberg he wanted to

be enrolled as a trooper. For the rest, he feigned simple-mindedness to avoid inquiry into his antecedents, and answered all inconvenient questions with "Don't know." The justice recorded the suspicion that the fellow was a simulator. The letter is so framed as to block all inquiry and to quiet suspicion. It says that the boy has been kept in the house all the time, and no one knows of his existence; that he has no money, does not know where he came from, and wants to be a trooper; and that his handwriting is just like that of the writer of the letter. In it is contained a note purporting to have been written sixteen years previously by the mother of the child, but, as was afterwards proved by experts, written on the same paper, with the same ink, by the same hand. As a disguise, it was written in Latin characters. Both epistles are full of dialectic peculiarities and gross errors in grammar and spelling, many of which are repeated in Kaspar's later exercises. This is about all that was known of him. On the basis of this the rumor spread like fire that a wild boy, who did not know who he was or where he came from, was confined in the tower. Every one came to see him, and added to the wonder. He knows nothing of his childhood; ergo, he has been cut off from all humanity; ergo, he is a wild child of nature; ergo, he cannot talk or understand language; ergo, he is an innocent babe; ergo, he is a curiosity. Kaspar accepted the rôle, kept himself as passive and as stupid as possible, and in a few days was buoyed up into fame in an atmosphere of wonder and credulity. Only five days after his appearance Dr. Preu announces that "this lad is neither crazy nor idiotic, but has evidently been violently estranged in the most shameful manner from all human and social culture. . . . He is like a half-wild man brought up in the woods. . . ."

Meanwhile Kaspar was making gigantic strides towards civilization. Though at first he could only blurt out the most simple questions, and could understand only such as treated him like an infant, yet in three days he performed on the piano, soon afterwards knitted a stocking, and, before five weeks were over, had been able to inform the Burgomaster of his entire history. This the Burgomaster published in a long proclamation (33,000 words), in which the whole story is told from the point of view of the "wild boy of nature," and every suggestion of Kaspar's elaborated and expounded as gospel truth. This proclamation, though afterwards amplified and embellished with all the fantastic additions and details that credulity and vivid imagination could furnish, is the real source of the Kaspar Hauser Myth. Had this enterprising Burgomaster waited for the answer of the superior court to which he had submitted the document, he would have learned "that in the official records there was not even the slightest trace" of all this myth; that "the whole story was full of mythical and improbable circumstances as well as of inexplicable contradictions," and so on. But all this came too late.

Kaspar was put into the hands of a Prof. Daumer to be educated. Daumer was author of works on the 'Glory of the Holy Virgin,' 'The Fire and Moloch Worship of the Hebrews,' and on the 'Anthropophagism of the Apostles.' Under this master in one month Kaspar became a model of social elegance, playing at chess and checkers, carrying on witty conversations by the hour, making graceful allusions to the ancient Romans, and yet withal as innocent as a babe. The child of nature proves to be "a sensitive." It is observed that he sees a gnat in a spider's web at a considerable distance long after twilight; recognizes persons by their walk at incredible distances; distinguishes between an apple, a pear, and a plum tree by the smell of their leaves when others can scarcely see the trees, and

is overpowered by the odors of a graveyard several streets off. Nay, more, he is a magnetic sensitive. He distinguishes all sorts of metals by their attractions for his fingers, and finds a needle in the same way. A hardware shop causes the most violent shudderings and contortions. He is even made an unimpeachable witness to the truth of homoeopathy, the profession of the experimental Dr. Preu.

What more than anything else served to keep afloat the belief in Kaspar's story were the (supposed) attempts to murder him. The first occurred on October 17, 1829, under such circumstances as to leave him the sole witness in the case. He reported that the monster who confined him had attacked him and fled. The surgeons, on examining the wound and hearing Kaspar's story, reported that the wound was self-inflicted, probably with a razor. Of course, afterwards, village gossips remembered to have seen a suspicious man just at the right time, but no arrest was made. The evidence is completed by the fact that on the morning of this day Daumer and Kaspar had their first falling out. Kaspar was caught in a lie—a circumstance repeatedly observed by the more sensible members of Daumer's family. "Though his (Kaspar's) soul was filled with a childish kindness and gentleness, which rendered him incapable of hurting a worm or a fly, much less a man; though his conduct in all the various relations of life showed that his soul was spotless, and pure as the reflex of the eternal in the soul of an angel," yet he told a lie—in fact, so many of them that even Daumer had to admit it, and characteristically attributes the fall to the eating of meat.

In consequence of this and other circumstances, Kaspar was removed to Anspach, to the house of a teacher, Meyer, through the patronage of the Earl of Stanhope, who had adopted Kaspar as his son. Meyer recognized in him the realization of Munchausen,* as Daumer had of Émile. Kaspar felt the change of atmosphere, and knowingly adapted himself to it by no longer affecting supernatural sensibility or talking like a madman; but it was of no avail. Meyer's patience gave out, and he told Kaspar that his true character would be revealed to Stanhope. This was the occasion of the second attack, in which the circumstantial evidence against him was even more decisive than before. Kaspar came running home with a wound in his side, and, by pantomime, forced Meyer to return with him to the scene of attack (some distance off), in order to secure a silk bag which the supposed murderer had given him. In the bag was a note (such as no one intent on crime would write) written in mirror-script on paper such as was found torn out of Kaspar's exercise-book. Kaspar had not cried for help, but gave all his attention to finding the bag. The wound proved more serious than was apprehended, and in three days he died, at not over twenty-two years of age and only five years after his first appearance. Though many persons were again brought up as suspected, no commitment was ever made.

To tell of all the speculations regarding Kaspar's origin; of the ridiculous experiments by which it was attempted to prove his descent from a noble Hungarian family (an attempt that led to the insanity of an estimable lady); of the enormous literature invented to prove him an illegitimate descendant of this or that princely house (which eventually called forth a royal decree); of the vile intrigues for which scheming politicians used his name; of the scandalous accusations of innocent and philanthropic men and women—to

tell all this swelled Von der Linde's book to two large volumes, and there it can be read in full detail. That Kaspar Hauser, whoever and whatever he was, was able to deceive the world, seems more largely a matter of accident than of designed imposture. Apparently Kaspar used the original device of the letter to gain admittance to the cavalry, his fitness for which he showed by his remarkable performances on horseback. His peculiar surroundings created a rôle for him the utter impossibility of which words cannot exaggerate or describe, but which was accepted by him and applauded by the public. Few, however, of all the competent persons who had opportunities of forming an independent judgment were really deceived. His patron, Stanhope, acknowledged his error, and the literature of 276 numbers shows many attempts to expose the real Kaspar. But when such attempts were commented upon as follows, "If we should ever hear that the author had been put in chains as a maniac, we should not be at all surprised," or "Hell itself has its abominable representatives on earth," it is not surprising that cautious men kept silent. Neither the medical science of today, nor the means of investigation and publicity afforded by the telegraph and the reporter for the daily press, existed to bring the deception to a summary conclusion.

History of the Town of Easton, Massachusetts.

By William L. Chaffin. Cambridge: University Press. 1886.

MR. CHAFFIN'S history is sure to take and hold a high rank in the class to which it belongs. Its preparation has been the work of many years, and he has done his task with loving faithfulness. His conscientiousness is evident on every page, but particularly so when he is handling critical matters on which the town has been divided in the past. If he is ever just a little wearisome, it is when he is made so by his almost morbid fear of doing injustice to either party in a quarrel. The most critical case of all is that relating to the parish division upon the lines of the Unitarian controversy in 1831. Mr. Chaffin is now and has been for many years a Unitarian minister in Easton, but the most orthodox will be unable to detect the slightest bias of his theology upon his judgment of that miserable affair. To be full and accurate and conscientious is not enough, however, to make a readable town history. Many town histories are all this and they are insufferably dull. But Mr. Chaffin's for the most part is "as interesting as a novel" of the more interesting kind. His materials were helpful to this end. He has not dressed them up. There is no attempt at vivid or dramatic writing, but his eye is quick to see the force or humor of a situation, and his style does not obscure the natural features of events. His arrangement of his materials is extremely happy, and his handsome volume of 338 pp. octavo is one which, for the writers of more general histories of New England life and manners, will be an inestimable *mémoire pour servir*.

The town of Easton is in the northeast corner of Bristol Co., Mass. Its principal business is that of shovel-making, carried on by the Messrs. Ames, of whom Gov. Ames is now the most conspicuous person. There are other important industries. An account of all of them is given in chapters xxx and xxxiii; an account of their weak beginnings before 1800 in chapter xvi. Although the earliest settlement was not till 1694, the interest and importance of the early history are as predominantly ecclesiastical as with the oldest Massachusetts towns. After three chapters on the topography of the town, the original purchase, and the early settlers, in the fourth chapter we come to Elder William Pratt, and, of the twenty-five chapters following, thirteen are concerned

with various aspects of the religious life of Easton. The ecclesiastical history of the town has been singularly checkered. The course of true love never ran less smooth. The first minister, Elder William Pratt, whose ministry began and continued several years before the incorporation of the town, left behind him some remarkable documents from which Mr. Chaffin has liberally quoted. The elder's orthography and piety shine with emulous brightness in the closing passage of an account of his voyage to South Carolina and back, bringing with him Heber and Hager, two negro slaves valued at £50: "But god haveing a design to try & prove us furdur, & to sho' his pour & faithfullness, & to mak us pris marsys the mor, cased a violent storm to wris, & driving us from land again for about a fortnite, but on the 23rd of february brought us all safe to land for weh we promised to prais his holy name." Elder Pratt's account of a secret fast he kept in 1699 is extreme in its simplicity. With God's "asistants" he "hild out comfortably until it was near Night." Here is his recipe for the treatment of a certain ailment: "When nothing Else would do to stop the excessive bleeding at the nous, the powder of a dryed toad with bees-weax hath stoped it: the toad for hast was dryed in the oven, but it shuld be hung up by the leag, alive until it is dead and dry."

The second minister, the Rev. Matthew Short, belied his name in the length of his discourses, if the one given in the appendix, which was printed by his congregation, is a fair example; but he made it good by the brevity of his settlement, which was cut short by death in 1731. The sermon given is one of the most ponderously huge and elaborately subdivided we have ever seen; but doubtless there were many like it in its generation. The more tragic elements of the ecclesiastical history begin to appear in chapter vii, with the Rev. Joseph Belcher's dissatisfaction with his salary, his insanity, and mysterious disappearance. Hundreds of New England towns have quarrelled over the location of the meeting house. In Cummington it was moved from place to place so often that it should have been permanently set on wheels. Easton was no exception to the rule. It had its quarrel, which was of twelve years' duration and was complicated with questions of ministerial heresy and probity. The East-enders set up a Presbyterian church. The Baptists objected to being taxed for false doctrine. The morals of the town were not improved by the spectacle of a minister threatening to break the heads of the General Court Committee, and many similar amenities. There was a "decline of Religion and the Love of many waxes cold." So mourned the Baptists in 1789 when their society was on its last legs. It was a general complaint.

The earlier phase of the Unitarian controversy—that of theological difference—did not begin to be so productive of ill feeling and local strife as the later phase of parochial division, when the question was which of the contending parties should have the church building and the parish funds. In Easton the Unitarians were the stronger in parish voters, the weaker in church-goers and church members. Mr. Sheldon was a rigid Calvinist, and would not exchange with the Unitarians round about. He was requested to and did not. Then trouble began, and it lasted eight years, with every imaginable variety of complication. There were committees and conferences and councils innumerable. The Unitarian majority put themselves legally in the wrong by refusing to pay Mr. Sheldon's salary, on the ground of his refusing to exchange with other Congregational ministers. There were many painful and some ludicrous situations. Mr. Sheldon assisting, the doors of the pews belonging to his friends in the old meeting-house were

* Kaspar once told that he had had revealed to him in a dream some peculiar Latin words, which, when written down, proved to be part of an ode of Horace, and actually got persons to believe him. He afterwards admitted the deception. Von der Linde gives a catalogue of seventy-two gross deceptions, occurring within a few months, at Daumer's house.

fastened with iron strips and bolts well riveted. The climax of absurdity was reached when the parish party, obliged to pay Mr. Sheldon's salary, required his services. As he was preaching twice a day to his seceded friends, he shortened his sermons to his enemies. But they demanded their money's worth, and they got it full measure, pressed down and running over. Nevertheless, there was a settlement at last, and Mr. Sheldon lived to be a welcome guest in homes from which he had long been excluded. He was an excellent man, yet he dearly loved a fight, and his "staying quality" in the teeth of vigorous opposition was remarkable.

But we must not give the impression that Mr. Chaffin's history is exclusively ecclesiastical. There are admirable chapters on Easton in the French and Indian and Revolutionary war; one on "Old Abandoned Homesteads," and one on the war of 1812, and among the later chapters there are full and interesting ones on libraries, public schools, "shadows" of local slavery and thievery and intemperance; there is one upon highways, and one on burial places. These last have been very numerous in Easton, and lovers of queer epitaphs would do well to consult Mr. Chaffin's pages. The chapter upon Easton in the civil war is the most elaborate in the volume. Even the deserters, of whom there were 18 out of 277 volunteers, are not passed over in silence. The record could afford these dreadful blots. Chapter xxxiv, "Easton in 1886," gives an agreeable picture of the appearance of the town. It is fortunate in having a station, a memorial hall, and a library that were designed by Richardson—the memorial hall, one of his most beautiful buildings. They were all given to the town by members of the Ames family. The Unitarian church and parsonage, hardly less beautiful, came from the same generous hands. There are charming heliotypes of these buildings and of several others—some also of wide views and some of persons; all adding much to the value of the book. There is, finally, an admirable index, and an appendix containing many valuable documentary illustrations.

Tenth Census of the United States. 1880. Vol. xviii. Social Statistics of Cities. Part I. The New England and the Middle States. Washington.

THERE is something in the very appearance of a public document that alarms the general reader. The size is portentous, the shape awkward, the binding unattractive, and the contents usually dreary to the last degree. Wise men, as a rule, cannot be induced to open these books that are no books, unless they are specialists, and specialists are generally disappointed in them. Of this volume, however, we must say that it is interesting. If its form were not so utterly impracticable, we should say that the Government might in this case have received something like an equivalent for its money; but we fear that a quarto nearly a foot square and three inches thick, whatever its contents, can never have many readers. The plan upon which the work was begun involved the writing of the history of every city treated of, from colonial times down to the present day, as a sort of introduction to its statistics—a plan on nearly the same scale as that of Diedrich Knickerbocker, who thought it necessary to start his history of New York with the creation of the world. Thus the historical sketch of Boston occupies 27 pages, that of Philadelphia 38 pages, and that of New York 28 pages, while Providence, Pittsburgh, Rome, and Syracuse get from 15 down to 6 or 7 pages. It was very soon found that at this rate there would be no statistics at all, for the appropriation would be exhausted in paying for historical essays. Accordingly the

history of such towns as Hartford, New Haven, and others of equal importance is disposed of in a very summary way, Hartford and Brooklyn, for example, getting each 2 pages and New Haven only 1. So far as they go, these brief sketches seem to be very well done, and although they can hardly be looked upon as essential to the plan of the work, they of course add greatly to its interest. That of New York is by Mrs. Martha Lamb; that of Philadelphia by Susan Coolidge; most of the others are unsigned. The preparation of the report was in the charge of Col. George Waring of Newport, and, with the exception of the extravagance referred to, it is a truly scientific production. Even this extravagance must be judged leniently; for the valuable labors of our historians are generally so ill paid that hardly any one could grudge them this amount of patronage from the Government. In view of the profuse and reckless waste of the earnings of our people of which their representatives are guilty, it is consoling to discover an accidental diversion of a few crumbs to the encouragement of such patriotic labors as these. We should look with apprehension upon any attempt on the part of Congress to patronize literature; but when the disbursement of an appropriation happens to fall into such hands as those of Col. Waring, we can rejoice at the practical results without defending the theory.

The general plan followed in the arrangement of these statistics may be illustrated in the case of the city of Boston. There is given in the first place a small map showing by diverging lines the directions and distances of the principal cities of Massachusetts and the neighboring States, which is flanked by tables of population and followed by a statement of the financial condition of the city. Interspersed through the account are larger maps, exhibiting the original topography and early settlement, together with the present shore-line; the appearance of the city in 1772; the same in 1800; the same in 1814; the areas and dates of annexation of territory down to 1880; the location of the steam railroads and stations in that year; the ground occupied by buildings in that year; the horse railroads; the location of the concert and beer gardens, theatres, halls and lecture rooms, and museums; the hotels, apartment hotels, libraries, school-houses, and churches; the police districts; the societies, secret and benefit, hospitals, asylums, and homes—all clearly printed, but failing to show the streets of 1880 with the old maps in relief, as contemplated by the editor.

The text treats with the detail of an encyclopedia of almost every conceivable element of municipal existence. We have an account of the site and elevation of the city, of the railroads, the tributary country, the topography and the climate. The streets, the parks, the theatres, the churches, the cemeteries, all receive due notice. Then follow accounts of the municipal government in all its branches, finance, police, health, etc.; especially interesting accounts of the system of sewers, the schools and libraries, hospitals, dispensaries, and penal institutions; and an essay upon the commerce of the port and the principal industries that centre in Boston. Dry as the list may sound, the particulars are so well arranged and judiciously presented that they are in the main extremely readable. The whole account has a unity that shows a trained sense of proportion in the compiler, and at the same time impresses the reader with a most profound sense of the enormous complexity of municipal existence.

There is perhaps in all this material nothing more striking than what is commonly supposed to be the proper subject-matter of a census—the statistics of population. By the year 1840 the influence of immigration had begun to be felt in Boston. In 1845, out of a population of 114,000,

more than 32 per cent. were of foreign birth. This element increased in 1850 to more than 45 per cent., of whom five-sixths were of Irish parentage. From 1850 to 1855 the native population increased by 600, the foreign by 22,000; and in the latter year the balance had turned. In 1820 the foreign-born element had been so small as to be inappreciable; within the period of a generation it increased so as to constitute a majority of the population. Although it is in the nature of the case impossible that this proportion should be maintained, yet in 1875, out of a population of 342,000, 117,000 were foreign-born. In that year to every 100 births of American parentage there were 57 births of mixed and 189 of foreign parentage. In 1878 there were 10,160 births in Boston; of these only 2,874 were of American parents. The descendants of the generation that inhabited Boston in 1820 had become nearly as insignificant in numbers as the foreigners of that day, and their relative strength necessarily diminishes in an increasing ratio. In 1870 it appeared that of the inhabitants of Boston, 150,000 had foreign fathers, the same number foreign mothers, and 142,000 persons had both foreign fathers and foreign mothers.

In view of these facts, it seems remarkable, not that Boston should now have an Irish Catholic for Mayor, but that it did not long since have one. We are almost tempted to believe that a municipality is indeed a vital organism, since it can not only exist but continue its development in spite of such a sudden and complete change in the nature of its population. The moulding power of institutions was never more strikingly manifested; for, in spite of the semi-barbarous condition of the Celtic immigrants, the city seems to be in a sound condition, and the descendants of the original settlers may still look upon it with pride.

Dorothy Wordsworth: The Story of a Sister's Love. By Edmund Lee. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1887.

THE materials for this biography were slight, and consisted of passages already published in other volumes; but something is gained by collecting these and grouping them about one central person. It is very difficult, however, to make the sister of Wordsworth the main subject when he is himself continually in the story; and consequently this volume is rather a fireside view of the poet, a history of his domestic life, than a mere biography of one member of his family. But of Wordsworth's home Dorothy was a large part; through her came at first that womanly influence and sympathetic fostering of his genius, to which, as his poems frequently attest, he felt he owed so much of the felicity of his lot. She was devoted to him in his early years, kept house for him until his marriage, and afterwards continued to reside with him. She entertained his friends, and was prized by all of them. Mrs. Coleridge, in fact, is charged with some feelings of jealousy, and is said not to have relished the freedom with which Miss Dorothy, after returning from a walk with Wordsworth and Coleridge in which a shower overtook them, would go, without permission asked, to the wardrobe and array herself in her friend's gowns. Miss Dorothy was a pedestrian who could not be tired, and, intellectually, too, she could keep the pace. De Quincey gives the most life-like description of her:

"Her face was of Egyptian brown; rarely in a woman of English birth had I seen a more determined Gypsy tan. Her eyes were not soft, as Mrs. Wordsworth's, nor were they fierce or bold; but they were wild and startling, and hurried in their motion. Her manner was warm, and even ardent; her sensibility seemed constitutionally deep, and some subtle fire of impassioned intel-

lect apparently burned within her, which, being alternately pushed forward into a conspicuous expression, by the irrepressible instincts of her temperament, and then immediately checked, in obedience to the decorum of her sex and age and her maidenly condition, gave to her whole demeanor and to her conversation an air of embarrassment, and even of self-conflict, that was almost distressing to witness. . . . She was a person of remarkable endowments, intellectually; and in addition to the other great services which she rendered to her brother, this I may mention as greater than all the rest, and it was one which equally operated to the benefit of every casual companion in a walk—viz., the exceeding sympathy, always ready and always profound, by which she made all that one would tell her, all that one would describe, all that one could quote from a foreign author, reverberate, as it were, *à plusieurs reprises*, to one's own feelings by the manifest impression it made upon hers."

Of the person and the temperament so well sketched in these lines, this little volume gives as much illustration as could be drawn from the poems, letters, and records of daily life, impressions of visitors, etc., which are to be found in the various Wordsworth memorials; and the book belongs in the library of female biography. The diary of the tour in Scotland, which Prof. Shairp published a few years ago, and some few undistinguished poems, comprise all of the literary work from her hand, unless a few letters to friends are to be included; but it is natural, and it is most fitting, that she should be seen rather in the light which Wordsworth's gratitude and affection cast about her than by her own originality, for if she had any originality, she allowed her brother to absorb it. They were united in unusually close bonds of a common nature, of which his poems were the expression; and in them the softer and feminine element may be regarded as, in a sense, her part. The whole volume breathes the peace, quiet pleasures, and domesticity of Wordsworth's home; and the closing chapters, which contain in few words the story of how his sister's mind became weakened and dull in consequence of a severe illness, and how the care of her was one of the poet's most cherished occupations in his last aged years, are full of pathos. She died in her eighty-third year.

Representative English Prose and Prose Writers.
By Theodore W. Hunt, Ph.D. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1887.

THIS is a book excellently adapted to convey practical instruction in the principles and history of English prose composition. The rise and development of the art are briefly outlined, and its stages characterized with understanding and care; then the analytical method is adopted, and the different kinds of prose are defined and de-

scribed; lastly, the author uses the illustrative mode of exposition, and examines separately and in detail the merits and defects, as prose writers merely, of twelve representative men, i. e., Bacon, Hooker, Milton, Swift, Addison, Johnson, Burke, Lamb, Macaulay, DeQuincey, Dickens, and Carlyle. This last division occupies two-thirds of the volume and is the real matter of it, the earlier parts being of a prefatory nature. In the special criticism of one or two of these authors one could find points upon which to enter protest, but they would be few. The work as a whole is exceedingly well done, and shows thorough study, sound judgment, and a true sense of literary virtues and faults under all their outward changes. The standards of the writer are firmly fixed, and he refers to them with confidence; and it is the confidence born of knowledge. The volume has the great merit of making an instructive study of some of the masters of English serve as an exercise both in style and in criticism. It would be particularly available as an advanced text-book in rhetoric.

Tables for the Determination of Common Minerals. By W. O. Crosby. Boston: Mass. Institute of Technology. 1887.

THE use of systematic tables in determinative mineralogy, is, as Mr. Crosby in his preface very truly says, rather restricted than increased by attempting to embrace all known species, the fact being that beyond the two or three hundred common minerals, the thousand or more rare species are not likely to be often met with by the student or young mineralogist for whom such tables are primarily designed. The professional mineralogist, on the other hand, will have all the facts contained in such tables so completely at his fingers' ends that he will not be likely to make use of such adventitious aids. In preparing his tables, therefore, Mr. Crosby has confined himself to the two hundred most common mineral species, and has restricted the determinative tests mainly to their physical properties, which can be recognized without the complicated apparatus of a laboratory. It is primarily upon their chemical properties that the many sets of tables hitherto published (all founded more or less upon those of Von Cobell) are based, and their use requires at least a blowpipe apparatus, which is not conveniently carried with one in the field. In this respect Mr. Crosby's tables undoubtedly supply a want; but for actual field use they would have been still more convenient had they been published of such size that they could be easily carried in the pocket.

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Cope, Prof. E. D. *Theology of Evolution.* Philadelphia: Arnold & Co. 75 cents.
Desjardins, Albert. *Les Sentiments moraux au xix^e siècle.* Boston: Schoenhof.
Dyer, Rev. A. S. *The Poems of Mme. de la Mothe Guyon.* A. C. Armstrong & Son. \$1.
Featherman, A. *Social History of the Races of Mankind.* 2d division. 2 vols. London: Tribner & Co.
Frink, B. C. *Frauds of the Through Bill of Lading System Exposed.* New York: The Author.
Fyffe, C. A. *A History of Modern Europe.* Vol. II. From 1814 to 1848. Henry Holt & Co. \$2.50.
Gates, C. G. *Latin Word Building. Root Words with their more common derivatives and their meanings.* Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co.
Gift, F. L. L. *Lorimer: A Novel.* D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Gift, T. *Victorine.* (Leisure Hour Series.) Henry Holt & Co. \$1.
Gratacap, L. P. *Philosophy of Ritual.* James Pott & Co. \$1.50.
Griswold, W. M. *Annual Index to Periodicals for 1886.* Bangor, Me.: Q. P. Index.
Hill, F. H. *George Canning.* (English Worthies.) D. Appleton & Co.
Klinckhardt, H. *Das höhere Schulwesen Schwedens und dessen Reform in modernem Sinne.* Leipzig: Julius Klinckhardt.
Lescure, M. de. *Etude sur Beaumarchais.* Boston: Schoenhof.
Lyly, J. *Euphues: The Anatomy of Wit.* Heliobron: Georg Henninger.
McCarthy, J. H. *Ireland Since the Union.* Chicago: Belford, Clarke & Co. \$1.50.
Mémoires pour servir à la vie de M. de Voltaire. Paris: Jouaust; New York: Duprat & Co.
Nesbit, E. *The Lily and the Cross.* E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Parker, Dr. J. *The People's Bible: Discourses upon Holy Scripture.* Vol. v. Joshua-Judges v. Funk & Wagnall. \$1.50.
Peabody, Dr. A. P. *Moral Philosophy. A Series of Lectures.* Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.50.
Pearson, Strong. *Thirteen Satires of Juvenal. With introduction and notes.* Part I. Macmillan & Co. \$1.50.
Fraed, Mrs. Campbell. *Moloch: a Story of Sacrifice.* New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Preston, Rt. Rev. Monsignor T. S. *Gethsemane. Meditations on the Last Day on Earth of our Blessed Lord.* Robert Coddington.
Proceedings in Senate and Assembly of the State of New York in relation to the Death of Horatio Seymour, held at the Capitol, April 14, 1886. Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.
Ramsay, Prof. G. G. *Selections from Titullius and Propertius.* Macmillan & Co. \$1.50.
Rawlin, F. H. *The Last Two Kings of Macedonia: Extracts from Livy.* Macmillan & Co. \$1.
Reed, T. R. *History of the Old English Letter Foundries.* London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Reid, C. *Miss Churchill: A Study.* D. Appleton & Co.
Rhodes, Dr. M. *The Throne of Grace, or a Call to Prayer.* Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Co. \$1.
Robinson, A. Mary F. *Margaret of Angoulême, Queen of Navarre.* Boston: Roberts Brothers. \$1.
Robinson, Dr. C. S. *The Pharos of the Bondage and the Exodus.* The Century Co. 50 cents.
Robinson, Edith. *Forced Acquaintances: A Book for Girls.* Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Robinson, E. *Museum of Fine Arts: Descriptive Catalogue of the Casts from Greek and Roman Sculpture.* Boston: The Museum.
Roger Camerden. *A Strange Story.* George J. Coombes. 50 cents.
Rulers of the World. *School Herald Extra.* for January, 1887. Chicago: W. L. Chase. 25 cents.
Samuels, Capt. S. *From the Forecastle to the Cabin.* Harper & Brothers.
Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe. 16th ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
Scott, Sir W. *The Bride of Lammermoor.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.75.
Scott, Sir W. *The Heart of Midlothian.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.75.
Spofford, A. R. *American Almanac and Treasury of Facts for the Year 1887.* American News Co.
Starck, E. L. *Grammar and Language: An Attempt at the Introduction of Logic into Grammar.* Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth. \$2.50.
Stevenson, R. L. *Kilnknapped. Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mrs. Hyde. Treasure Island.* Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Stevenson, R. L. *The Merry Men, and Other Tales and Fables.* Charles Scribner's Sons.

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